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ABSTRACT

An immediate assessment of the migrant and seasonal farmworker situation was conducted between August 1975 and January 1976. The assessment described the elements affecting these farmworkers; discussed current and projected changes in migration patterns; analyzed the effects of inflation and of changes in agricultural demand and production on these farmworkers; identified levels and kinds of services delivered by state and local public agencies to migrants; described the size and characteristics of this farmworker population; identified Federal legislation and policies affecting migrants; and analyzed attitudes affecting migrant and seasonal farmworkers. This report presents data pertaining to demographic studies of farmworkers; income; age and family size; racial/ethnic composition of the work force; agricultural mechanization; regional unemployment; inflation and farmworker buying power; manpower training and educational services; supportive services under Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA); labor legislation excluding farmworkers, incidentally covering farmwork, and specifically concerning farmworkers; major legislation and social programs under which farmworkers receive benefits; availability of health care; migrant in-stream and home base housing; seasonal farmworker housing; necessity and inaccessability of services; social programs; and economic development. Appendices include the CETA Title III-303 Grantee Directory, Migrant Health Directory, Migrant Health Project reporting requirements, and the court order in the NAACP vs Peter J. Brennan case. (NQ)

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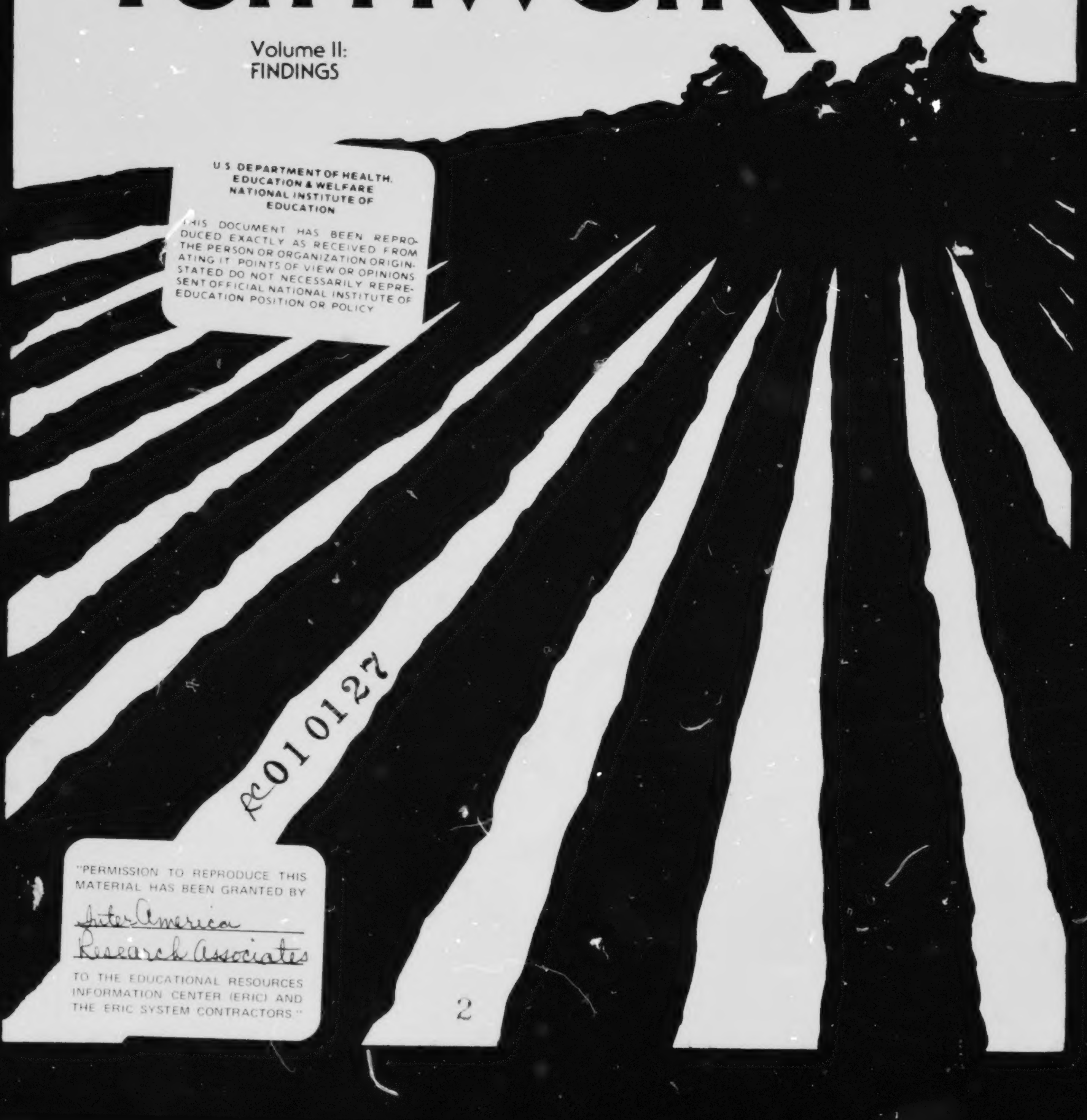
MIGRANT/SEASONAL
Farmworker

Volume II:
FINDINGS



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AN ASSESSMENT
OF THE MIGRANT AND SEASONAL FARMWORKER SITUATION
IN THE UNITED STATES

VOLUME II: FINDINGS

Prepared for the
Community Services Administration

By

InterAmerica Research Associates
2001 Wisconsin Avenue
Washington, D.C. 20007

May 28, 1976

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Between August, 1975, and January, 1976, InterAmerica Research Associates conducted a study for the Community Services Administration. The objective of this study as stated under contract was to provide an immediate assessment of the migrant and seasonal farmworker situation. This assessment includes: 1) a description of the elements affecting migrant and seasonal farmworkers: 2) a discussion of current and projected changes in migration patterns; 3) an analysis of the effects of inflation and 4) the effects of changes in agricultural demand and production on migrant and seasonal farmworkers; 5) an identification of levels and kinds of services delivered by state and local public agencies to migrants; 6) a description of the size and characteristics of the migrant and seasonal farmworker population; 7) an identification of federal legislation and policies affecting migrants; and 8) an analysis of attitudes affecting migrant and seasonal farmworkers (i.e., civil rights, social education, etc.).

The relatively short time span provided with which to accomplish the national assessment was a necessity due to CSA's desire to have the study in-hand for use in designing effective strategies to be implemented with projected CSA funding for Fiscal Year 1977 targeted at farmworkers. For this reason, the immediacy of the data dictated, a rapid overview rather than an in-depth investigation and lead to utilization of the three primary methodologies discussed below. As a result, scientific randomization of sampling data was not employed, regionalized and localized activity was not investigated to the fullest extent, and time was not available with which to assess many areas in which in-depth analysis would have been beneficial.

Unfortunately, Congress did not appropriate targeted farmworker funds for CSA, although this decision was made too late to broaden the contract work scope.. As a result, the study will not have utilization as expected, although it is projected that CSA, and other agencies and individuals with which CSA shares this report, will utilize the information in formulation of agency farmworker policy and initiation of strategies. InterAmerica believes the report is complete and as comprehensive as can be expected within the time limitations indicated, and represents an overview of the farmworker situation. However, there is a substantial need to further explore the topic, covering more areas in depth and utilizing scientific sampling procedures. InterAmerica regrets the inability to accomplish these tasks within the work scope of this contract.

STUDY STRUCTURE

Definitions

The following definitions are used in this report:

Seasonal: a person who works at least 25 days, but not more than 150 days during a year in farm wage work

Migrant: a seasonal who, during the performance of farm wage work, is unable to return to his or her domicile within the same day

Farmworker: both migrants and seasonals

Home Base Area: an area where farmworkers maintain their permanent residence

User Area: an areas where migrants work, but do not maintain a permanent residence

Home Base/User Area: an area which is a combination of both home base and user areas

ORGANIZATION OF THE REPORT

The development of the agenda for the conferences and the development of the areas of inquiry for the questionnaire represented the areas of concern to be covered by the study. These areas of concern developed into the sections of this report as listed in the Table of Contents. This organization most effectively meets the requirements of the contract for this study.

Volume I of this report presented a brief description of each of the three data collection components used in this study. A more thorough discussion of each component is provided in this section. Because the project had to be completed within seven months, the literature search, questionnaire, and conferences had to be implemented simultaneously. This was the most limiting factor on the study. However, the information gathered from each source complemented the other information gathered. In view of the need to complete the study in a short period of time, this limitation was unavoidable.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature review collected as much information as possible from as many sources as possible. InterAmerica has been collecting reports, studies, and general information on farmworkers for years, and the InterAmerica library was an excellent first source. This information was further supplemented by searches of two large data files, mass mailings, and personal interviews.

The data files examined were the Smithsonian Science Information Exchange (SSIE) and the Educational Resource Information Clearinghouse (ERIC). The SSIE information system is primarily composed of research studies conducted by universities and other non-government, non-profit institutions; the ERIC data system lists educational research studies from each source.

Another widespread source of information was the Migrant Education Title I projects. Each state's Title I program was sent a request for information regarding farmworkers. All persons contacted were asked to refer us to any other sources of information of which they were aware. These contacts were also pursued.

Finally, this information was gathered into initial drafts of the chapters in this report. These drafts were used in conjunction with questionnaire and conference data in writing the report.

Following is a list of agencies whose staff members were interviewed in the study:

Congressional Research Service
Library of Congress
August, 1975

Farmers Home Administration
U.S. Department of Agriculture
September, 1975

Rehabilitation Services Administration
Department of Health, Education & Welfare
September, 1975

Migrant Health
Department of Health, Education & Welfare
October, 1975

Migrant Division
Department of Labor
October, 1975, January, 1976

Special Review Committee
Department of Labor
October, 1975

Office of Planning and Evaluation
Department of Health, Education & Welfare
August, 1975

Migrant Legal Action Program
September, 1975

Migrant Branch, Title I Education
Department of Health, Education & Welfare
October, 1975

Migrant Head Start
Office of Child Development
Department of Health, Education & Welfare
October, 1975

Farm Labor Contractor Registration Act
Wage and Hour Division
Department of Labor
October, 1975

Housing Assistance Council
Washington, D.C.
December, 1975

It should be noted, however, that exhaustive search turned up many areas in which data was not available or well outdated. This problem interfered with the overall proficiency of the literature search and caused an inability to cross-check many facts uncovered in the other methodological components of the study. This lack of data has lead to the development of several study and data collection type of recommendations, as noted in Volume I of this report.

QUESTIONNAIRE SURVEY

One of the three data gathering components of the project was a questionnaire survey. The purpose of the survey was to solicit information concerning the extent to which farmworker needs in a number of areas are being met, information regarding service delivery, and information relating to the changing farmworker situation. Data produced by the questionnaire was intended to be quantifiable and useful in verifying or refuting the more impressionistic data obtained at the conferences.

The questionnaire consisted of eleven categories of questions, with a total of 111 items. Most of the items were Likert-type scaled questions which asked respondents to react to a statement by marking a point on a scale best representing their feelings about that statement. The end points of the scale represented extreme responses, such as "strongly disagree" and "strongly agree." Other kinds of questions included simple "Yes" or "No" responses and on several occasions a combination of the "Yes" or "No" and the Likert-scale questions were used. One question asked the respondent to rank a series of provided responses. The remainder of questions were open-ended and space was provided for additional comments. Overall questions were intended to solicit both objective and subjective data, focussing only on the present and recent past (A copy of the questionnaire is included at the conclusion of the Appendix).

In attempting to conduct the questionnaire survey, it was necessary to do three things:

1) Ascertain areas of inquiry,
2) Specify which types of respondent could best provide information, and
3) Determine the total population to be addressed.

The areas of inquiry to be addressed by the questionnaire were designed to encompass all aspects of the farmworker experience. Areas which would be addressed included:

1) The extent to which service delivery was not meeting the needs of farmworkers.
2) The methods by which services were delivered and by whom they were funded.
3) The changes (for the better or worse) which might have occurred in specific areas of concern (such as health and education).
4) Changes in employment opportunities for migrant and seasonal farmworkers.
5) Changes in wage levels and the effect of inflation.
6) The extent of awareness among farmworkers of service programs available to them and the extent to which they used these programs.
7) The effects of local attitudes towards farmworkers.

Once the areas of inquiry were determined, the types of respondents who could best provide information within these areas were specified. It was decided that information could best be obtained by sampling across different levels of service agency personnel as well as farmworker/client. The six levels of respondents used were board members, project directors, senior staff members, service staff, farmworker/clients, and other local individuals. The inclusion of clients and other key local individuals was intended to broaden the information base, to reflect accurately user needs, and to provide a cross-check mechanism to validate agency personnel response. The questionnaire population was selected so as to represent migrant home base and user areas, and areas serving primarily seasonal farmworkers. To achieve this representation and establish a source from which individual respondents would be selected, names and addresses of potential respondent agencies were gathered from InterAmerica files and from federal agencies. While it was not possible to ensure inclusion of all relevant agencies, every effort was made to do so. Emphasis was placed on farmworker-run, nonprofit agencies, in order to pinpoint as accurately as possible exact local service conditions. Agencies included were therefore primarily migrant manpower or migrant health grantees, although other sources, such as state government agencies were included to broaden the information base.

Since both InterAmerica files and the federal agency directories primarily listed only project directors and did not provide agency staff information, it became apparent that the project director would first have to be solicited for names of potential respondents. A two-stage mailing was therefore used. The initial communication informed project directors of the study and in some cases invited them to one of the conferences. The project directors were then asked to identify a specific number of respondents at specific levels in their agencies. To lessen the potential distortions of this self-reporting system, questionnaires were then sent directly to those whose names and addresses were provided by the project director. The numbers and levels of respondents were varied randomly across agencies to control for self-reporting bias and varying agency size, and to aid in the interpretation and generalization of findings.

The total population of the questionnaire was determined in large by the response of the project directors to the respondent identification requests. The study design had specified that farmworker/clients and service staff members would be able to provide the most factual information regarding service delivery and therefore would have to be the most represented groups in the final questionnaire population; so, a greater number of requests for these categories was sent to assure adequate response. Project directors and senior staff members were the second most represented.

Farmworker/clients were intended to constitute 40 percent of the sample and service staff members 25 percent. Project directors were intended to compose 12 percent of the sample and senior staff members 10 percent. Board members and other key local individuals were intended to provide 7 and 6 percent, respectively.

InterAmerica requested the names of a total of 369 potential respondents from project directors. Only 198 names were received from directors, however. Questionnaires were mailed out to these 198 potential respondents, and 117 of them responded, generating a response rate of 59 percent on actual questionnaires sent.

Respondents to the questionnaire, then, represented various levels within agencies, different types of agencies, and a number of types of farmworker use areas, as well as a national sampling of all migrant streams and predominant seasonal farmworker areas. The representation achieved by the survey in these areas can be seen in Tables a, b, and c. Each table presents data relating to the number of respondent names requested from project directors, the number of potential respondents contacted, and the number of questionnaires responses received by InterAmerica, plus the percent figures which these questionnaires represent of the total.

Whether or not the survey achieved the representation called for by the study design can be established by comparing the actual response rate to that intended.

In Table a, it can be seen that the representation of geographic areas called for by the study design was achieved. By comparing Column II (the percent of names requested from each geographic area) with Column VI (the percent of responses received from each area), a fairly consistent relationship is evident.

In Table b, it can be seen that the types of agencies were also represented according to the demands of the study design. A variance from the study design occurred within the state agency category. While 8% of the potential respondents were intended to come from state agencies, only 3% of actual responses were received from them. This variance was not viewed as serious enough to jeopardize the study.

Table c presents the only serious concern regarding the representation achieved by the study. As can be seen by comparing Columns II and VI, the intended and actual composition of the questionnaire population varied considerably more than in the other two breakdowns. The greatest variance was in the response rate of farmworker/clients. In terms of potential respondents requested from project directors, this group was intended to constitute 40% of the questionnaire respondents. However, farmworker/clients comprised merely 15% of those actually filling out and returning questionnaires. Although this might be seen as seriously hampering the survey, it should be noted that the primary information for this study was to be solicited from both the farmworker/client group and the service staff group. The loss experienced in the farmworker/client category was made-up in the response rate of the service staff members, which was 14 percentage points higher than was intended. Expected literacy and availability problems (especially when using a mailed questionnaire, as was necessary here) did materialize in obtaining satisfactory client response. However, several agencies contacted by phone in the course of the follow-up to the mailing indicated that clients who were responding were filling out the forms with the help of service staff members anyway. Thus, in combination, these two groups succeeded in responding to the questionnaire in a manner fairly close to the demands of the study design. All other levels were slightly overrepresented.

Tables a, b, and c, demonstrate that although the survey employed a two-step self-reporting method for attaining response to the questionnaire, a timely and comprehensive fielding of the instrument was still carried out and the representation of the population intended was achieved.

Although the intended population of the questionnaire was satisfactorily queried, the study did in fact face limitations and constraints.

The most important limitation was the allotted time for the project. Each component was affected by this, and greater interaction between the components also occurred as a result. The questionnaire survey and the conferences, for example, were planned concurrently and conducted within the same period of time. This did not allow for a systematic testing of the questionnaire. Instead, it was submitted to several individuals widely viewed as experts in farmworker affairs. Lack of time further did not allow the opportunity to expand the sample. The sources used to extract farmworker service agency information were not updated and this resulted in a loss of time while the present names and addresses of individuals were being obtained.

Another constraint faced by the survey was an unexpected high rate of loss of questionnaires and respondent identification sheets through the mails. This, too, cost the project time and money which could have been used to expand the data analysis phase of the project, and limited the response rate of the questionnaire to some extent.

Analysis of the data included identification, coding and card punching of the information; frequency, central tendency and cross tabulation analysis by independent and dependent variables; and examination of tabular results for confirmation or rejection of expected outcomes. Unfortunately, the degree of stratification and the limited overall sample size seriously impaired the statistical significance of the results, but analysis of trends which were clearly portrayed was utilized so that the data could still be usefully compared to the data from other segments of the study. Responses from the overall population have, of course, higher statistical significance than those for any individual subset.

TABLE a

QUESTIONNAIRE RESPONSE BY GEOGRAPHIC AREA

COLUMN	I	II	III	IV	V	VI
	RESPONDENT NAMES REQUESTED FROM PROJECT DIRECTORS		POTENTIAL RESPONDENTS CONTACTED		QUESTIONNAIRE RESPONSES RECEIVED	
GEOGRAPHIC AREA	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
FLORIDA	21	6	14	7	8	7
SOUTH	49	13	26	13	13	11
TEXAS	50	14	30	15	15	13
SOUTHWEST	21	6	15	8	10	9
WEST	33	9	15	8	9	8
NORTHWEST	56	15	25	13	18	15
UPPER CENTRAL	12	3	6	1	4	3
UPPER MIDWEST	37	10	20	10	11	9
MIDWEST	27	7	12	6	6	5
MID ATLANTIC	17	5	13	7	10	8
NEW ENGLAND	44	12	21	11	13	10
OTHER	2	1	1	1	0	0
TOTAL	369	100	198	100	117	100

TABLE b

QUESTIONNAIRE RESPONSE BY TYPE OF AGENCY

COLUMN	I	II	III	IV	V	VI
TYPE OF AGENCY	RESPONDENT NAMES REQUESTED FROM PROJECT DIRECTORS		POTENTIAL RESPONDENTS CONTACTED		QUESTIONNAIRE RESPONSES RECEIVED	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
303	156	42	101	51	54	46
319	132	36	68	34	42	36
STATE	31	8	8	4	4	3
OTHER NON-PROFIT	48	13	21	11	17	15
TOTAL	369	100	198	100	117	100

TABLE c

QUESTIONNAIRE RESPONSE BY LEVEL OF RESPONDENT

COLUMN	I	II	III	IV	V	VI
	RESPONDENT NAMES REQUESTED FROM PROJECT DIRECTORS		POTENTIAL RESPONDENTS CONTACTED		QUESTIONNAIRE RESPONSES RECEIVED	
LEVEL	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
BOARD MEMBER	25	7	16	8	12	10
PROJECT DIRECTOR	44	12	38	19	16	14
SENIOR STAFF	38	10	27	14	16	14
SERVICE STAFF	93	25	72	36	46	39
CLIENT	147	40	33	17	17	15
OTHER KEY PERSON	22	6	12	6	10	7
TOTAL	369	100	198	100	117	100

CONFERENCES

A series of nine conferences were held in an effort to update literature review information and supplement questionnaire data. The conferences formed a picture of the current farmworker situation based primarily on the views of those directly involved in farmworker issues. The geographic dispersion of the conferences allowed for regionalization in data-gathering, enabling researchers to determine geographic differences within the national farmworker picture and to trace applicable trends both from home base and user areas. Contract time restrictions made it necessary to conduct conferences within a five week period, many running simultaneously.

As the number of conferences was limited to nine, it was decided that three would be held in each of the three major migrant streams. Conference sites were chosen in central locations, planned for centralized cities in each geographic area rather than the specific home city of any of the programs to be represented. These choices were designed to assure a neutrality and objectivity that would not be possible if any of the agencies served as "host."

Participants within a 200 mile radius of each site were invited to attend. (The 200 mile radius restriction was placed in an effort to keep conference costs at a minimum.) These criteria and the limitation in number of conferences resulted in some unexpected conference locations. For example, for the central stream a conference would likely be held in the central states, Kansas or Missouri. However, compared to other geographic areas of the country, this area has a lesser number of migrants and seasonals within a 200 mile radius of a central point. As a consequence, Indianapolis was chosen as a site due to a heavier concentration of target population in this area. Sites chosen were San Antonio, Texas; West Palm Beach, Florida; Springfield, Massachusetts; Albuquerque, New Mexico; Indianapolis, Indiana; Atlanta, Georgia; Minneapolis, Minnesota; Fresno, California, and Seattle, Washington (Map A). Other areas, with large farmworker populations, but which did not fall within the 200 mile radius of conference site specifications were consequently not represented at conferences. However, these areas received a heavier concentration of questionnaires. Physical arrangements for conference locations at each site were made so as to keep conferences as similar as possible.

It was decided that conference participants should be those who were most directly involved with the local farmworker population, including representatives from farmworker programs (funded by federal and state governments and privately); representatives from state agencies; and farmworkers and others highly knowledgeable of the local farmworker situation. It was determined that optimum conference size would be less than fifteen participants, allowing for open discussion and participation by all present in an informal, yet structured manner. Invitations were issued through directors of organizations chosen for each conference, the project directors in the case of farmworker programs and agency heads for state and local agencies. Due to scheduling conflicts or heavy work loads within organizations invited, directors often sent someone else to represent them at the conference, causing some problems in data gathered.

At some conferences, selected farmworker programs were asked to contact and invite local clients whom they felt were particularly knowledgeable of local conditions. This system was utilized as it was felt that farmworker program directors would have the best grasp of which of their clients would be best suited for and be available to attend a conference of this type. Farmworkers were offered an honorarium for their attendance as a substitute for their missed field work time. Bilingual personnel from the research staff were present at each conference.

Conferences were structured to incorporate all major topic areas covered by the study in a manner allowing for free and open discussion. Generally the discussion included: characteristics of the farmworker situation in each topic area (manpower, housing, economic development, etc.) across the following categories: current situation, the problem, what is being done, and what should be done. Agendas were distributed to each participant specifying topics to be covered and a proposed time frame for discussion. (A copy of the conference agenda is provided at the conclusion of this Appendix.) The conferences, planned for one day, stretched to two if discussion warranted. (Two of the conferences required this extension.)

In an effort to provide conference uniformity, conference facilitators underwent a training period involving instruction in conference structuring, discussion guidance, and specific subjects to be covered in each conference. The Conference Facilitator Outline is provided at the conclusion of this Appendix. Facilitators were directed to allow free discussion, asking for clarification and detail on general statements. On some topics, such as unemployment rates, facilitators were instructed to take a survey of responses. Facilitators were also told to encourage those present to offer recommendations and conclusions.

Each conference was tape recorded to allow for a permanent record. Additionally, each conference facilitator completed a detailed conference report noting the names and positions of participants, specific data gathered and facilitators' assessment of the scope of the information obtained. (A copy of the conference report format is presented at the conclusion of this Appendix.) These reports were utilized in incorporating conference data into this study report.

Although invited participants included those most highly knowledgeable of the local farmworker situation and those involved in a variety of areas affecting farmworkers, not everyone invited could attend. Scheduling conflicts within the invited agencies, prior commitments, a simultaneous health conference in one geographic location, or adverse weather conditions at another location, resulted in either nonattendance by agency directors or lack of agency representation. As a result, some conferences presented an imbalance in types of representation. For example, some conferences included mainly manpower related agencies rather than health, education, or other specialized agencies, or the participants were highly knowledgeable in some discussion topic areas, but lacking knowledge of other topic areas. Most participants admitted when discussion centered around areas of which they were unfamiliar. Such comments were noted by conference facilitators in their reports and considered in weighing the value of information obtained. Thus false data was minimized. The farmworker/client representation was also somewhat lower than desired due to problems with agency invitations of these participants and conflicts encountered by the farmworkers themselves.

Data compiled through conference reports was segmented by topic areas and utilized in preparation of this study, presenting regional and national trends and supporting or supplementing data gathered through the two other components of the study. In weighing the value of information gathered during the conferences, researchers considered the subjective system through which data was gathered and the experience and knowledge of the personal information source. As most of this data is subjective in nature, statements derived from conference discussions are documented as such throughout this study.

TELEPHONE SURVEY

To gather a sampling of services provided to farmworkers funded by state or local agencies, a telephone survey was conducted of state executive offices, and Community Action Agencies. Only organizations located in home base or user states with a heavy farmworker population were sampled. The number surveyed were:

Type of Agency	Information Requested	Information Received
State executive offices	7	3
State economic opportunity offices and Community Action Agencies	19	15

The questions asked included:

Of State Executive Offices:

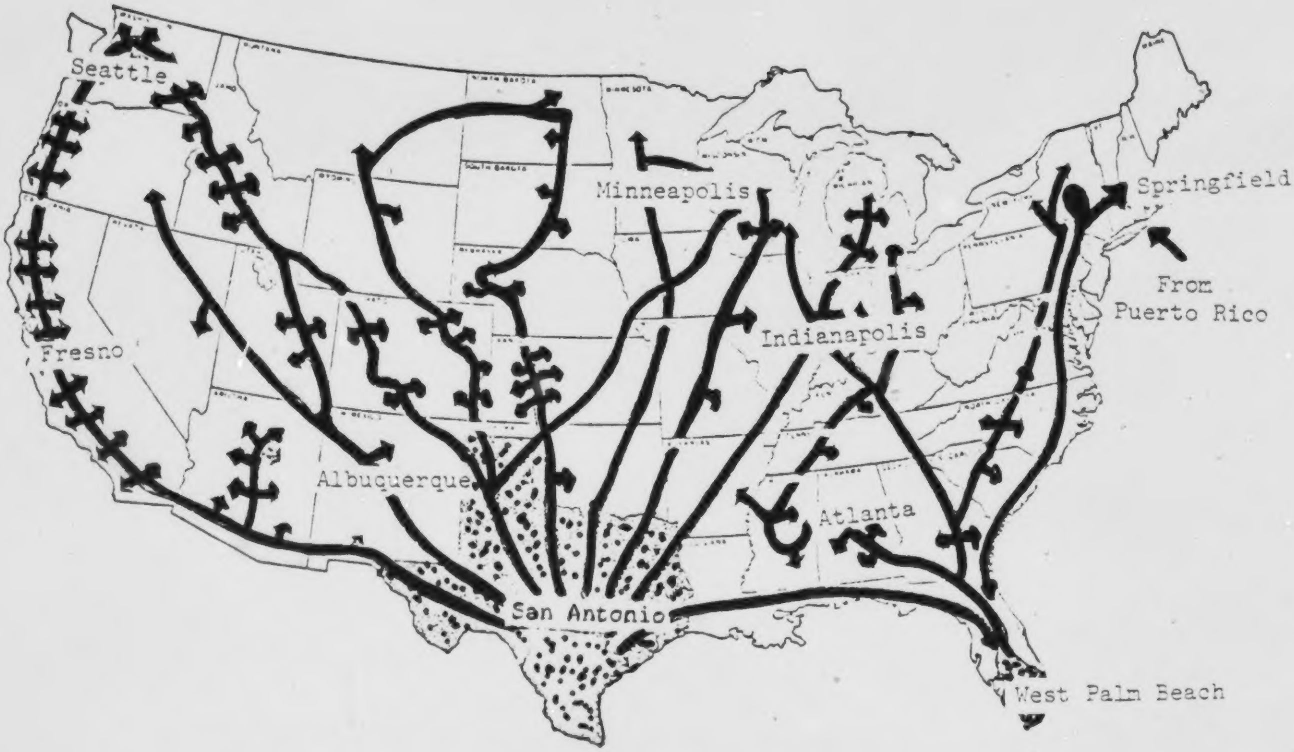
- What types of programs targeted to farmworkers are funded by your state?
- How many migrant and seasonal farmworkers are served by each program?
- What is the geographic service area of each program?

Of State Economic Opportunity Offices and CAAs:

- What types of programs does your agency run which are funded by other than federal dollars?
- How many migrant and seasonal farmworkers are served by each program type?
- What other state or locally funded programs serve farmworkers within your state?

Much difficulty was encountered in gaining this information as many personnel could not say how many farmworkers were served by each of their program types. This survey provided a quick overview of state and locally funded services for farmworkers, but due to contract time limitations, did not have the depth or randomness which would have been desirable for a more complete picture.

CONFERENCES IN CONJUNCTION WITH MIGRATORY PATTERNS


Seattle
Fresno
Albuquerque
Minneapolis
Indianapolis
Springfield
From
Puerto Rico
Atlanta
San Antonio
West Palm Beach

CHAPTER 2

DEMOGRAPHICS

Conservatively estimated, there are over one million migrant and seasonal farmworkers in the United States. Including their families, they number well over four million people.* They cultivate and harvest the crops across the nation, work in the third most dangerous occupation there is, and are among the lowest paid workers in the nation. (12,p.12)

The migrants emigrate from three major home base regions: Florida, South Texas and California. These areas are characterized by high unemployment levels, a primarily agricultural economic base and a large group of unskilled workers. As the harvesting ends in these regions, the workers move north in search of further work.

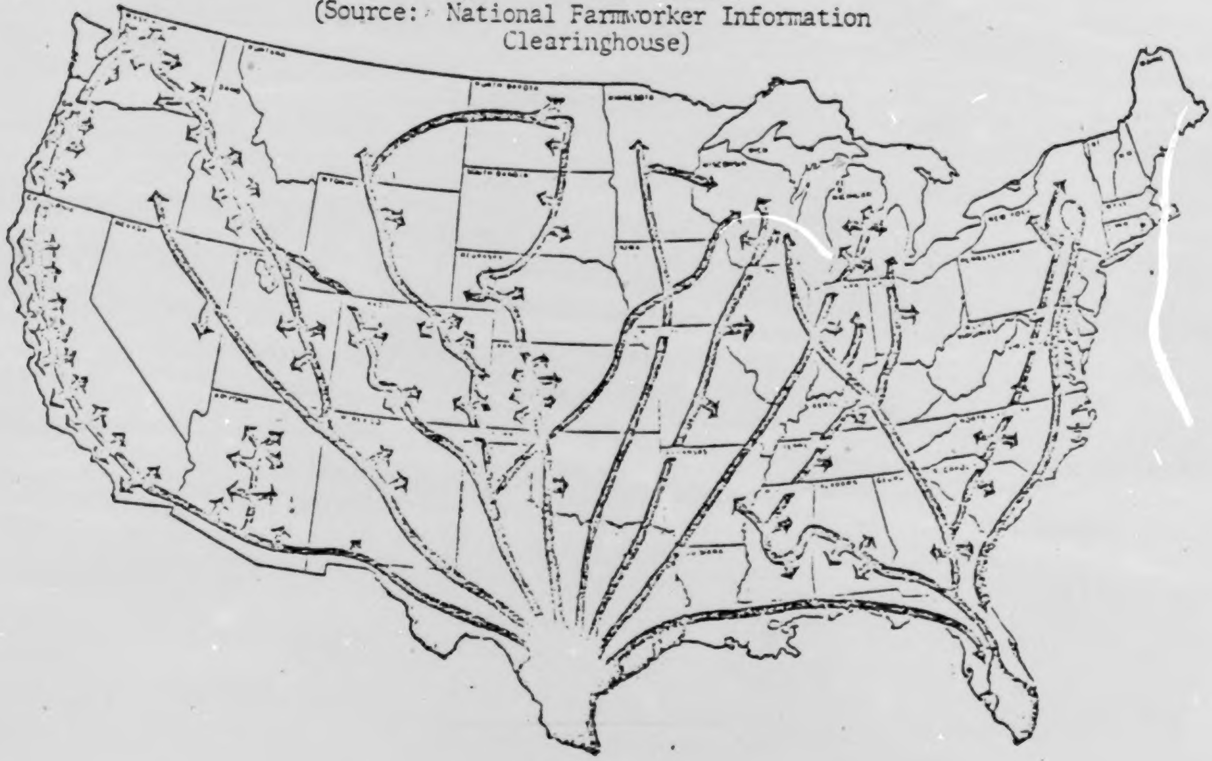
Historically, migrant workers travelled in three major streams -- the East Coast, Midwest and California streams. In the past few years though, as more workers have sought fewer jobs, the traditional travel patterns have been breaking down, and the three streams are no longer distinct. (See Chart A).

---

*In 1974, the U.S. Department of Agriculture estimated that there were 829,000 seasonal agricultural workers and 209,000 migrant agricultural workers. If one multiplies this 1,038,000 total figure by an average family size of 4, the resulting figure is 4,152,000 farmworkers whose livelihood is dependent on seasonal agricultural work. Some people consider this a conservative estimate, since for reasons explained later in the chapter, the USDA figures could be low, and since the average migrant family size is over 5 persons.

CHART A

Migrant Travel Patterns
(Source: National Farmworker Information Clearinghouse)



Seasonal workers live and work throughout the United States, but have their highest concentration in the South. Relatively few farmworkers live in the Northeast. (26,p.14)

DEFINITIONS

The following definitions are used by government agencies for programming purposes:

USDA - Migrants are people who:
"(a) left their home temporarily overnight to do farm wagework in a different county within the same state or in a different state with expectation of eventually returning home, or

(b) had no usual place of residence, and did farm wagework in two or more counties during the year." (26,p.29)

DOL,CETA - A migrant is:
"a seasonal farmworker who performs or has performed during the preceding twelve months agricultural labor which requires travel such that the worker is unable to return to his/her domicile within the same day." (14,p.28983)

DHEW, TITLE I, ESEA - A migratory child of a migratory agricultural worker is: a child who has moved with his/her family from one school district to another during the past year in order that a parent or other member of his/her family might secure employment in agriculture or in related food processing activities." (19,p.6)

DHEW, MIGRANT HEALTH - A migrant worker is:
"one whose principal employment is in agriculture on a seasonal basis who has been so employed within the last twenty-four months, and who established for the purposes of such employment a temporary abode." (21,p.35)

The definition of a seasonal agricultural worker is also becoming important for programming purposes. Both USDA and the Department of Labor have promulgated definitions. They are:

USDA - "persons who did 25-149 days of farm wagework." (26,p.29)

DOL,CETA - "during the preceding twelve months worked at least 25 days in farm work and worked less than 150 consecutive days at any one establishment." (14,p.28783)

DEMOGRAPHIC STUDIES OF FARMWORKERS

It is very difficult to assess the actual number of migratory and seasonal agricultural workers, much less their other demographic characteristics. Two national estimates of their numbers are made annually. One is done by the Department of Labor, and consists of estimates collected from the Employment Services offices. The sample is not random, so it is fruitless to consider these figures as indicative of a true census of farmworkers. The other estimate, done by the Department of Agriculture, is based on data collected by the Bureau of the Census for the Current Population Survey done each December. This sample is random, and as such, can provide certain trend data.

However, this data is not necessarily accurate. The Bureau of the Census, which does the count, has been accused of undercounting minority and poor populations. The Bureau itself estimated that in 1970, it undercounted the black population by 7.7%. (20,p.44) The U.S. Commission on Civil Rights felt that the undercount of Spanish-speaking Americans was at least as great as that of blacks, while some felt it was higher. (20,pp.45-46) Since many farmworkers are minority group members, one would expect then that this data undercounts farmworkers

Another factor limiting accuracy is the small sample size. The smaller the sample size, the greater the standard error and the less precise the resulting estimate. The USDA figures do have value as the only national sample yielding consistent data on an annual basis. For that reason, the Department of Agriculture data is reported in this section to indicate the trends in numbers, income levels, and age of farmworkers over the past five years. The Department of Labor recently contracted with USDA for a more in-depth study of farmworkers, concentrating on farmworkers deemed eligible for CETA 303 programs. This study, titled "Households Eligible for a National Farmworker Program Under the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act of 1973," was released in February, 1976. However, as findings were based on data obtained through USDA's annual survey, information within this report suffers from the same deficits as its original source.

The national samples do not provide any information on the racial/ethnic composition of the work force, the number of work sites of farmworkers, the travel patterns of migrants, the family sizes of farmworkers, or the amount of time migrants spent on the road. However, this type of data is available for limited samples from studies done in various sections of the country. It is difficult, if not impossible, to extrapolate an accurate national picture from this data, but in the latter parts of this section, this information is reported from local studies. One of the few national random sample surveys conducted concerning farmworkers was performed by Interstate Research Associates in 1974. (11) This study, although specialized to analysis of handicapped migrant farmworkers provides some basic demographic data. The random sample nature of this study allows for generalizations about the population and is, thus, applicable for use in this report.

ESTIMATES OF FARMWORKER POPULATIONS

Chart B depicts the numbers of migrant and seasonal agricultural workers as counted by USDA from 1970 - 1974. The number of migratory workers has changed in an unanticipated direction. After a steady downward trend in the late 60's and early 70's, the number has increased steadily since 1971, with the 1974 figure reaching 209,000 migrant workers. (26,p.14)

The number of seasonal workers has fluctuated, but in no steady direction. Their population has averaged 831,000 over the five years, and in 1974, they numbered 829,000.** (26,p.16)

No single reason can be given for the steady rise in the number of migrant workers and the fluctuating number of seasonal workers. One can surmise that as the economy gets bad and unemployment levels rise, people with no other work enter the migrant stream.

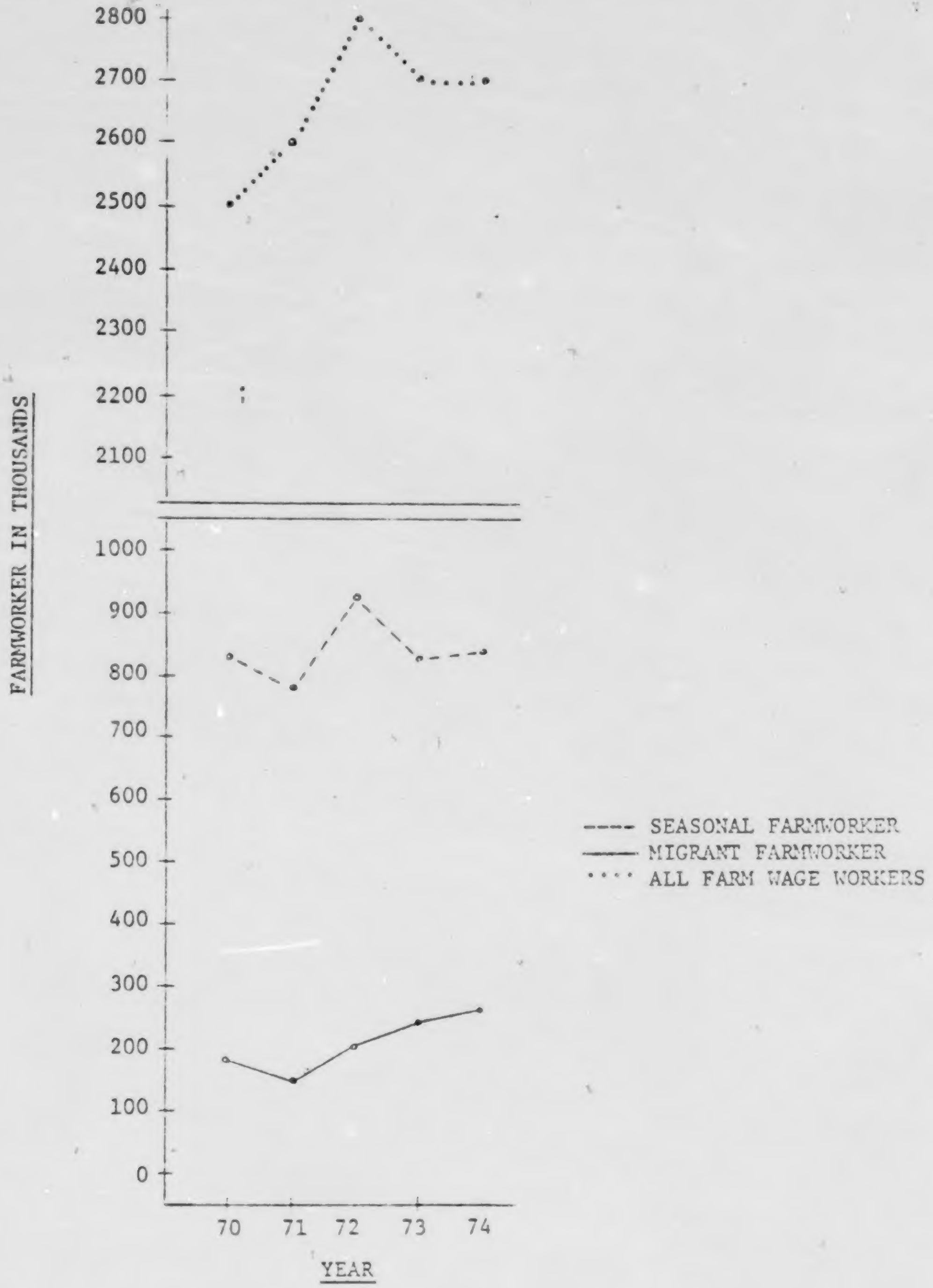
Some conference participants indicated that this was the case. (4;8) They were meeting people who were working in the migrant stream for the first time. They had been laid off from their jobs and had chosen migrant agricultural work as an alternative. Apparently, the trend towards more people in the stream is continuing into 1975, although possibly at a reduced rate.

The questionnaire respondents also suggested an increase in the number of farmworkers in 1975, with 44% of the respondents indicating an increase. Thirty-eight percent saw no change, and 22% noted a decrease.

**All averages used in this chapter have been taken from sources 22, 23 24, 25 and 26 as listed in the bibliography at the end of this chapter.

CHART B

NUMBER OF MIGRANT & SEASONAL FARMWORKERS IN AGRICULTURE



The fluctuation in the number of seasonal workers is more difficult to explain. Seasonal agricultural workers have remained a steady 33% - 36% of the total agricultural work force (which is composed of migrants, casual workers who work less than 25 days; seasonal workers who work 25 - 150 days, and year round workers who work more than 150 days). The fluctuation is not likely to be explained as movement of seasonals either into the casual worker classification or into the long term worker classification. It seems that the most likely explanation for the relative stability of numbers within the seasonal agricultural work force as compared to the migrant work force is that persons finding themselves out of work try to find local agricultural work, and that failing to find a sufficient quantity of work locally, they move to other areas temporarily to find agricultural work, and thus become classified as migrant workers.

FARMWORKER INCOME

The average income that migrants and seasonals have earned both through farm and non-farm work is shown in Chart C. In dollar amounts, the income earned by a farmworker is insufficient to support a family of four above the poverty level. In 1974 the average migrant worker earned less than $1,700 from farm work, while the seasonal earned less than $1,000 from this source. Their average annual income from all sources was $3,100 and $1,840 respectively. (26,p.16) This income is well below the poverty guideline of $4,300 for a rural family of four or $5,050 for the urban family of four. (13,pp.14317-8)

CHART C

WAGES EARNED BY MIGRANT & SEASONAL FARMWORKERS

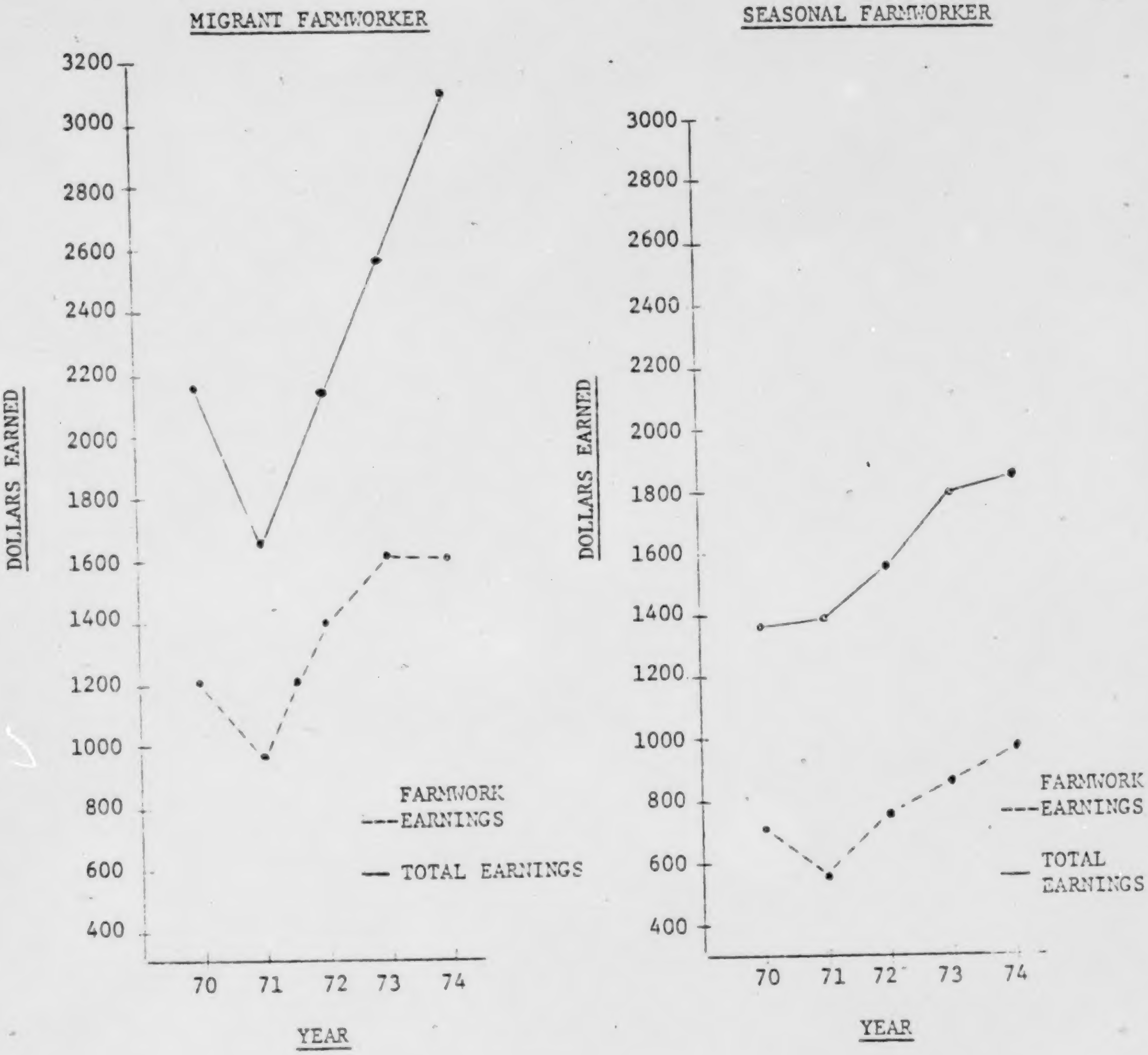


Chart D is a graph of the percentage of total farmworker income derived from farm work alone. Seasonal agricultural workers earn about half of their annual income from farm work. Migrants, on the other hand, have consistently earned 61% - 65% of their income from farm work. In 1974 however, farm wages accounted for only about 55% of the income. (26,p.16) This is consistent with a drop in the average number of farm work days compared to total work days. In 1970 - 73, migrants averaged 66% - 68% of their total workdays in farm work. In 1974, the average was 56%. (26,p.16) The only apparent reason for this is that the total number of farm work days available dropped 6% from 1973 to 1974, while the number of migrants rose by 3% during the same period. (26,p.2) These changes account for part of the decrease.

Chart E explains the rest of the decrease. It compares the changes in the number of total agricultural work days available and changes in the share of those days worked by year round workers, migrants, and seasonal workers. As can be readily seen, the percentage of agriculural labor performed by migrant workers and seasonal workers has fallen. More and more of the available agricultural work is being done by those workers who do more than 150 days of labor. This is the only group that has been employed to do an increasing share of the available farm work.

RACIAL/ETHNIC COMPOSITION OF THE WORK FORCE

No national statistics are kept concerning the ethnic origins of the migrant and seasonal work force. It is therefore impossible to say precisely who makes up the work force. Nevertheless, some general statements can be made about its composition.

CHART D

PERCENT OF INCOME EARNED BY MIGRANT & SEASONAL FARMWORKERS IN FARMWORK

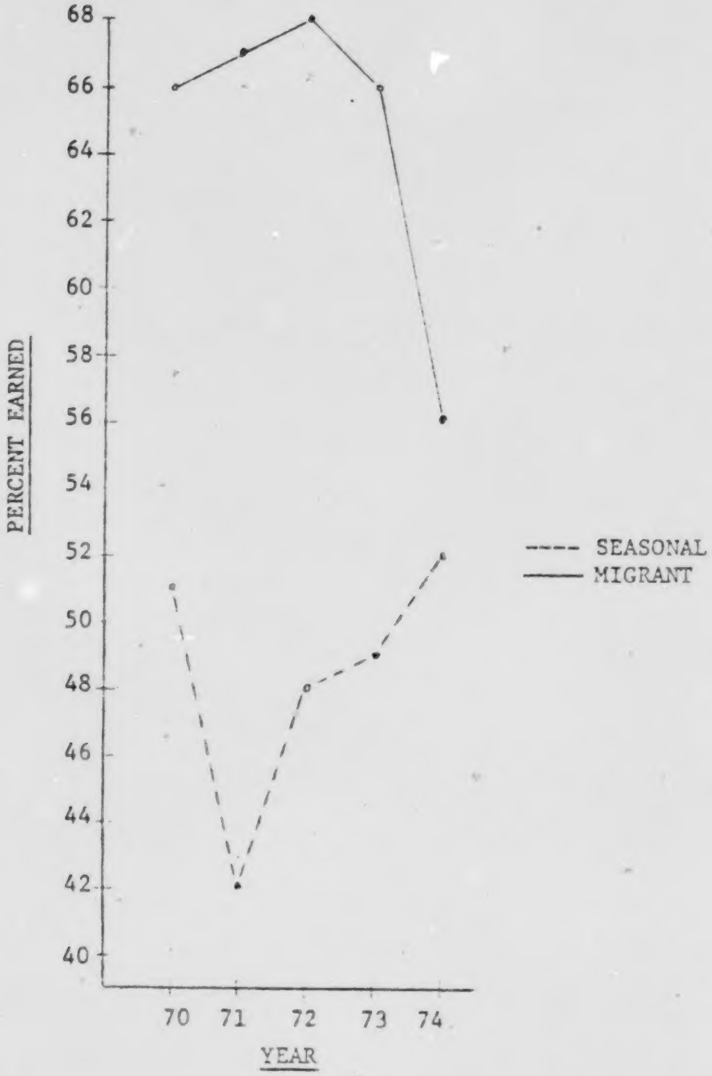
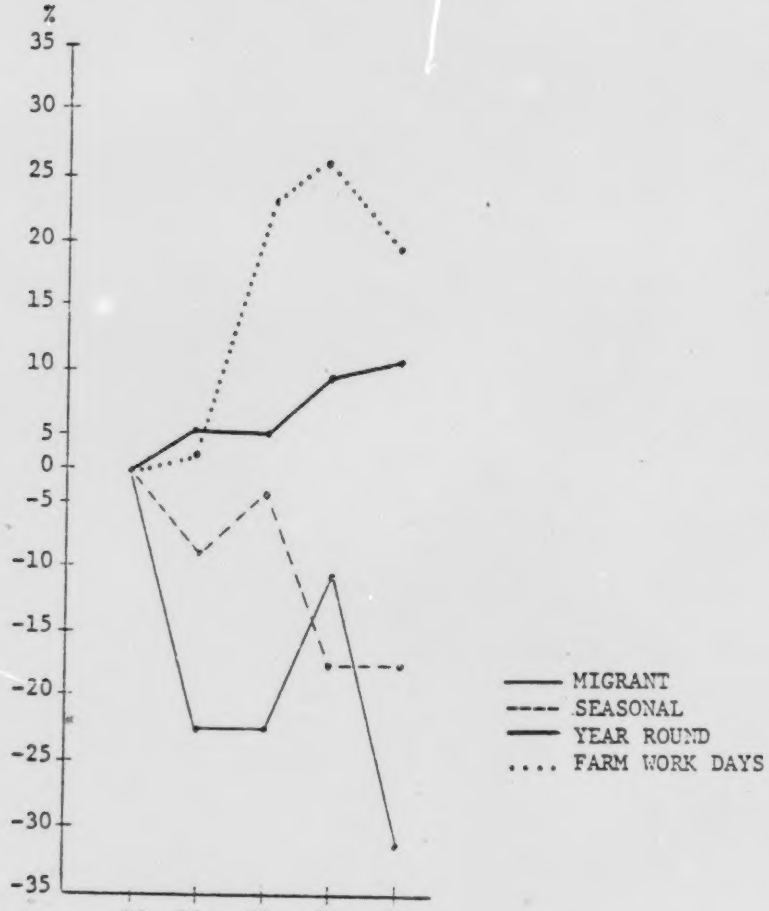


CHART E

PERCENTAGE OF GAIN OR LOSS IN THE SHARE OF FARMWORK DAYS PERFORMED BY MIGRANT, SEASONAL, AND YEAR ROUND WORKERS, AND THE PERCENTAGE GAIN IN AVAILABLE FARM WORK DAYS

1970 - 1974



Migrant workers in the Midwest and West Coast streams are traditionally thought to be primarily Mexican-American, while the East Coast stream is predominantly black. In addition, there is a significant group of Filipino workers in California, Canadians in Washington state and Maine, and nonresident British West Indians and Puerto Ricans on the East Coast. Conference participants confirmed this and expanded on it. New England conferees indicated Puerto Ricans were working in New Jersey; Minneapolis conferees stated that migrants in their area were mostly Mexican-American and Mexican aliens in addition to a group of Puerto Ricans working in one cannery. The Seattle conferees indicated that Mexican-Americans were doing work formerly done by whites.

Some specific figures on the racial/ethnic breakdown of migrants in the East Coast stream were: black - 60%; Spanish speaking - 16%-23%; white - 10%-15%; and other - 1%-13%. (16,p.6;17,p.17) A study of migrant and seasonal farmworkers in the Midwest found the following ethnic breakdown: black - 15%, Spanish speaking - 82%; white - 3%; and other - 1%. (11,p.56)

No studies were found which specifically discussed the racial/ethnic breakdown of seasonal agricultural workers. Conference participants from the South indicated that the majority of seasonals in the South were black; one participant said that 80% of the Florida seasonals were black. (6) In the Southwest, many of the seasonals are Mexican-American, while New England conferees had seen an increase in the number of college students doing seasonal work, and the Seattle conferees had examples of local people who had "dropped out" and were doing farm work in addition to some "skid row" people doing day haul work.

AGE AND FAMILY SIZE OF FARMWORKERS

Migrant and seasonal farmworkers are very young. Over 60% of the farmworkers were under 25 in 1974. The remainder of the seasonal work force is evenly distributed over the remainder of the age groupings. Migrants, however, have a smaller proportion of their population in the older age groups. Only 2% of migrants are over 65, whereas 8% of seasonal workers are that old. (Chart F) (26,pp.10,14)

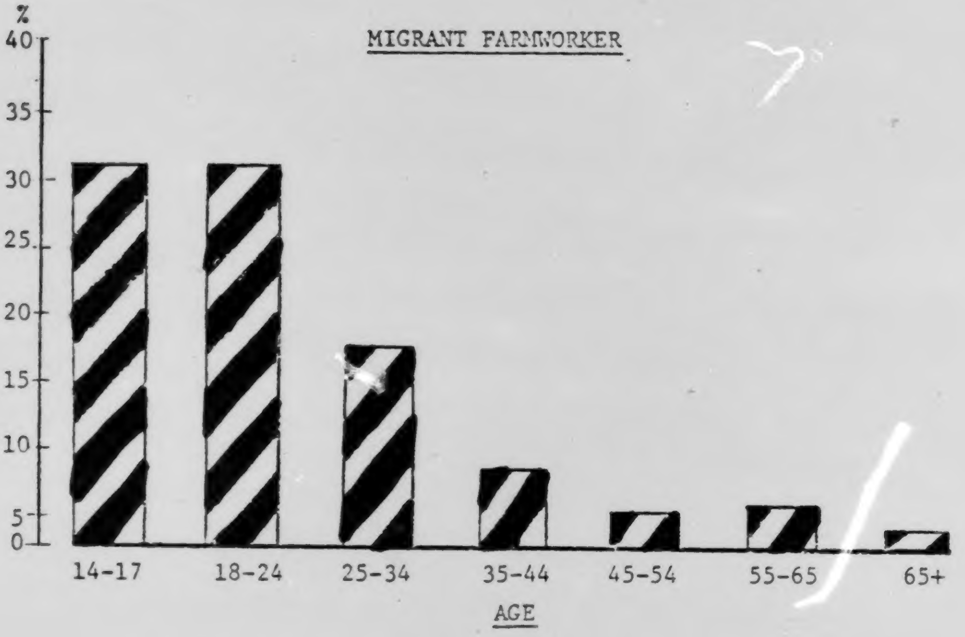
Migrant family size tends to be large, with the Latin American families larger than the black families. One study showed 41% of the Mexican-American families were larger than five members, while only 31% of the black families were that large. (Table 1) The average family size was 5.39 for the whole group, with the Mexican-American family's average size equal to 5.5 and the average black family having 4.9 members. In a study done by InterAmerica of Kansas, in-stream migrants in 1975 showed a mean family size of 6.3. (15,p.2)

MIGRANT TRAVEL CHARACTERISTICS

It is difficult to get an accurate assessment of how long the migrant stays in the stream. The only study found which had data on this question was done in Florida in 1970. More than half of the respondents indicated that they were in the stream for more than 17 weeks, while another

CHART F

AGE COMPOSITION OF WORK FORCE
1974



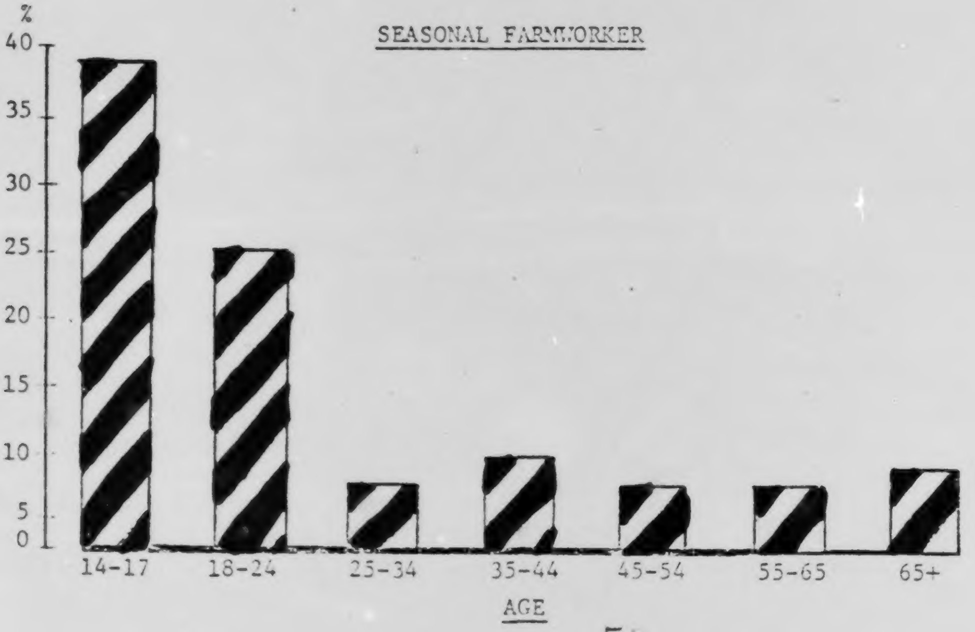


TABLE 1

FAMILY SIZE DATA

	Ethnic Group Families							
	Mexican American		Black		Puerto Rican		Total	
Family Size	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
1	1	*	0		0		1	*
2	46	11	6	9	2	14	54	11
3	77	18	13	20	2	14	92	19
4	67	16	12	19	5	36	84	17
5	58	14	13	20	2	14	73	15
6	37	9	6	9	1	7	44	9
7	35	8	5	8	1	7	41	8
8	30	7	5	8	1	7	36	7
9	21	5	3	5	0		24	5
10	18	4	1	2	0		19	4
11	7	2	0		0		7	1
12	17	4	0		0		17	3
13	3	1	0		0		3	1
14	2	1	0		0		2	*
15 or more	0		0		0		0	
TOTAL	419		64		14		497	

Source: Migrant Health Insurance Feasibility Study, Volume III.

21% indicated that they stayed in the stream for 13-16 weeks. (10,p.25) Some conferences gave indications of how long migrants stayed in the stream. In Seattle, for instance, a conferee estimated that they stay for six to eight months. Some of the San Antonio conferees indicated, however, that migrants were returning earlier than they used to because there was less work available than in previous years. There were also indications that children wished to remain at home until school was finished and wished to return when school reopened. (8)

There is no good indication of how many migrants travel in families and how many travel as single people. There is also no information about how many travel as individual units and how many travel as crews. Some of the New England conferees indicated that there were more single males than families, but another from New York felt there were more families than singles. Some of the San Antonio conferees indicated that it was becoming economically more unfeasible for the whole family to go, and that in some instances only one family member will go.

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CHAPTER 3

EMPLOYMENT AND INFLATION

The unemployment level of migrant and seasonal farmworkers is higher than the national average. Although this study was not able to ascertain a set percentage figure of unemployed farmworkers, a pattern emerged from the data collected which indicated that the farmworker unemployment levels varied from region to region. In discussing the issue of farmworker unemployment, data particular to these regions will be discussed. However, several factors were pinpointed as the causes of unemployment; generally, all the factors were related to the state of the economy. It should be noted in evaluating this data, that few current studies exist through which employment and inflation trends can be documented and facts cross-checked. The information presented here makes use of the publications noted in the bibliography and data gathered from conferences and questionnaires.

FARMWORKER UNEMPLOYMENT AND THE STATE OF THE ECONOMY

The state of the economy proved to be the main reason for the expansion in the total number of migrant and seasonal farmworkers. As the economy turned downward and the effect was felt in the homebase areas, the migrant stream was enlarged by those people who had become unemployed and thus were seeking alternative employment. The rise in the general unemployment rate is reflected in the rise of the total number of migrant and seasonal farmworkers. This can be seen by comparing the rate of unemployed workers in Chart G and the number of farmworkers in Chart H. As the economy worsened during 1970, the unemploy-

CHART G

NATIONAL RATE
OF UNEMPLOYED WORKERS

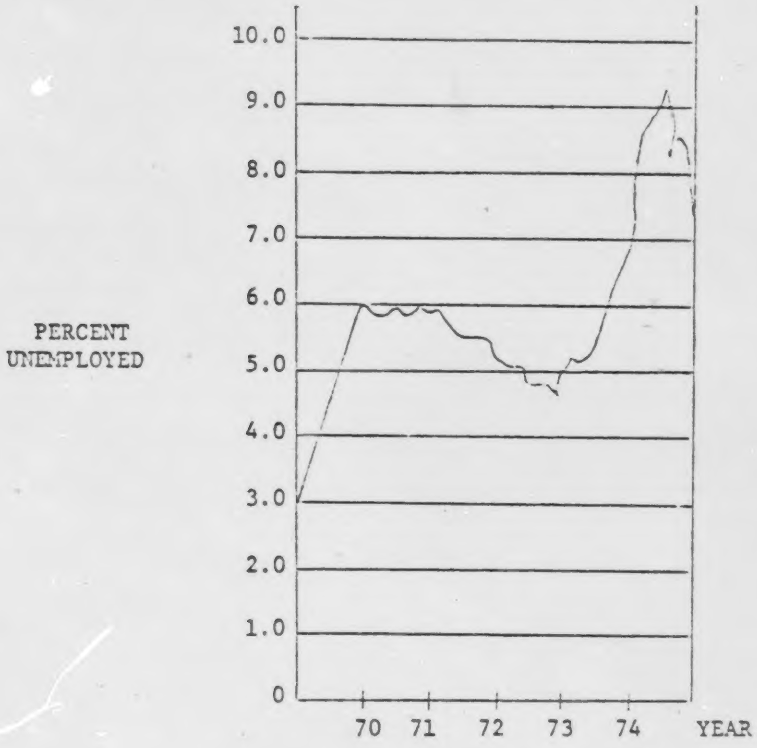
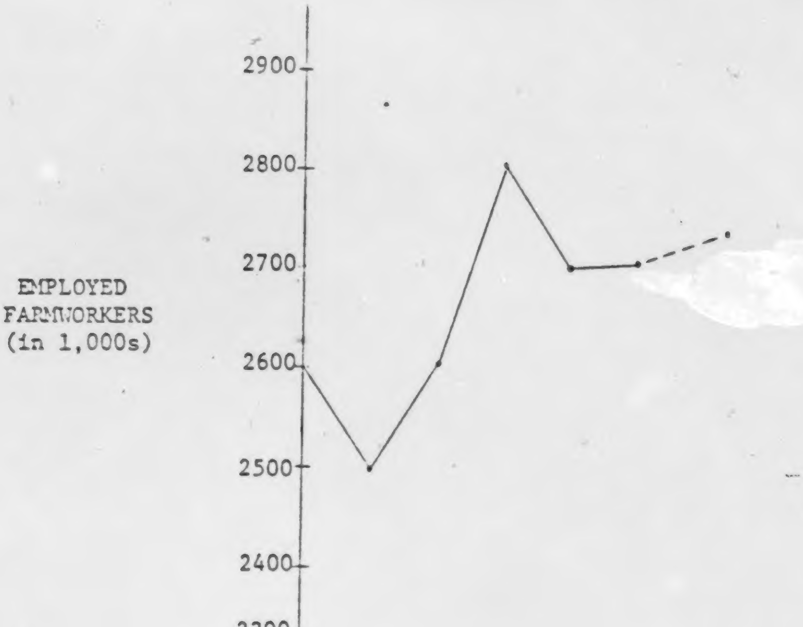


CHART H

TOTAL NUMBERS
OF MIGRANT & SEASONAL FARMWORKERS



ment rate rose at the end of the year to 6.0%. (18,p.7) As the economic recovery failed to materialize in 1971 and 1972 and the unemployment rate remained stable, Chart G indicates that people began to enter the migrant stream and do seasonal farmwork. (16)* In 1973, as the economy temporarily improved, the number of farmworkers dropped, indicating a return to non-agricultural employment. However, in mid-1974, the unemployment rate soared again ending 1974 with an 8.0% unemployment rate. The increase in unemployment continued in 1975 to 8.6% at the end of that year. (18,p.7) Again, the total number of migrant and seasonal farmworkers increased as the civilian unemployment rate climbed. Data gathered by this study suggests that the total number of farmworkers was still increasing into 1975, although the size of the increase is not easily projected. In a response to a question regarding the number of people looking for farmwork, 54% of the questionnaire respondents strongly agreed and 15% moderately agreed that more people were looking for work in agriculture this year than last year. Conference data points out such things as: Florida construction workers have returned to farmwork in proportion to the rise of civilian unemployment (2); Texas construction workers used to making $4.50 an hour are looking for farmwork in Massachusettes (4); urban residents in Washington are flooding the labor market by making themselves available to do nearby farmwork to earn supplemental income. (5)

Although the continuing increase in the number of farmworkers is apparent, the number of job opportunities continues to diminish. Forty percent of respondents indicated that there were somewhat fewer jobs available for all farmworkers compared to two years ago; only seventeen percent indicated an increased number of jobs. But in reference to migrant farmworkers only, 58% of respondents indicated a moderate or substantial decrease in opportunities for jobs. Data concerning non-agricultural work clearly paralleled the data in job opportunities as a whole, 66% of the respondents indicating a moderate decrease in non-agricultural employment levels. Nearly a third of respondents indicated that opportunities for farmworkers to find work outside of agriculture had decreased considerably over the past two years and over a third indicated that it had decreased somewhat. This correlates with 62% of respondents disagreeing with the statement that there are more job opportunities for farmworkers outside of agriculture in 1975 than in 1974.

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*Compiled from figures of The Hired Farm Working Force reports of 1970-1974. See bibliography.

Regarding employment levels of seasonal farmworkers, indications were similar to those relating to migrants, with a slightly larger proportion of respondents indicating no change in employment levels and a slightly lower number indicating some decreases in the employment levels.

There were several questions included in the questionnaire which specifically pointed to the levels of unemployment within the farmworker community. In response to the statement that growers are hiring more this year than last year, 55% disagreed and 34% indicated agreement. In response to a statement that more people are coming to their area looking for work for the first time, 41% of the respondents strongly agreed with only 9% disagreeing.

The employment situation of the farmworker is thus characterized by an increase of farmworkers looking for jobs and by a decrease in the number of jobs available. In short, the levels of employment and the levels of job opportunities are not converging, resulting in a growing number of unemployed farmworkers.

Generally, then, the economy can be said to be the main impetus behind the widening split between the need for employment and the availability of farmwork. In fact, though, there are other factors more specific than the general economy.

MECHANIZATION OF AGRICULTURE

The rapid displacement of farmworkers which began in the mid-1940's continues today at an accelerated pace. Over the past three decades, the mechanization and technological revamping of the American agricultural industry has contributed to the loss of 1.2 million farms and a decrease of 2.8 million farmworkers. (14,p.3) Uniformity is a major key to successful mechanization, and the numerous developments in fruit and vegetable packaging, marketing, and transporting are the result of dynamic changes in mass merchandising. Specifically, chain stores have demanded to sell large volumes of uniform graded and packaged products. The merchandising of a more uniform product increases cost and process efficiency. (10,p.39)

The increase of mechanization has led to the decrease of labor required to harvest crops. In 1968, 58% of all vegetable acres were harvested by machine; for 1975, the figure was projected to rise by 15 percentage points to close to 73%. (12,p.75) In 1968, 1% of all fruit acres were harvested by machine; in 1975; the figure was projected to rise to 17%. (12,p.76)

Although the trend towards mechanization is overwhelming, the least mechanization has traditionally occurred in the harvesting of fruits and vegetables, as can be seen in Table 2. (15,p.92) Nevertheless, the total man hours utilized to harvest fruit and vegetables per acre has declined as shown by Table 3. (12,p.69) In 1968, 75 hours were utilized to harvest an acre of fruit; it was projected that in 1975 close to 58 hours would be used. (11,p.133) In 1968, 38 hours were utilized to harvest an acre of vegetables; in 1975, close to 21 hours were projected to be used. (11,p.137)

An added indication of increased mechanization can be seen in the increase of fuel used in harvesting an acre of crops. In 1960, 11 gallons of fuel were used per acre of crops; in 1968, 18 gallons were used. (12,p.76)

Mechanization, then, has greatly affected the farmworker but the effects of mechanization depend heavily on the crops into which mechanization has been introduced. The introduction of mechanization into a crop whose production phase was composed of only one stage (such as cotton) would be more pronounced compared to a crop whose production was multi-staged such as fruit orchards. Only if a new machine were introduced at each stage in the latter case, would the displacement of workers be comparable to the unemployment resulting from the mechanization

TABLE 2

LABOR USED IN FARMING AND IN FRUIT AND VEGETABLE PRODUCTION
1910-1967

YEAR	INDEX OF FARMLABOR MANHOURS USED*				
	All Farmwork	Livestock	Crops	Vegetables	Fruits
1910	213	144	259	144	139
1920	226	153	275	164	135
1930	216	157	252	184	137
1940	193	154	213	175	132
1950	142	130	142	140	111
1960	92	90	94	95	95
1965	73	70	76	90	81
1967	68	64	73	93	81
Percent Reduction	62%	56%	72%	36%	41%

*Index used was based on the 1957-1959 index average of 100.

TABLE 3

LABOR REQUIRED ON FARMS - MILLION MANHOURS

YEAR	ALL FARMWORK	LIVESTOCK	CROPS	VEGETABLES	FRUITS
1950	15,137	5,548	6,912	640	619
1960	9,795	3,826	4,590	438	531
1970	7,269	2,720	3,522	429	453
Percent Reduction	48%	49%	51%	33%	37%

of the one-stage crop. Examples of how mechanization has taken over stage by stage can be seen in the production of citrus trees which were manually pruned at one time, but now are mechanically trimmed.

Some of the complex effects of mechanization on the farmwork labor force have been explored further in an article by James S. Holt:

> "Mechanization of a high labor using crop would be expected to have differential effects on different classes of workers and on producers of such crops. In crop activities utilizing primarily temporary workers the effect of mechanization undoubtedly would be to reduce temporary work opportunities, thus augmenting the supply of workers available for the remaining temporary jobs. For workers who are primarily unemployed or at work on nonfarm jobs the effect would probably be much the same, that is, reduced temporary job opportunities and an augmented supply of workers for the remaining jobs.
>
> For workers who are primarily single job, full-time workers the impact of mechanizing activities would likely be slight. In the long run mechanization has, of course, contributed to the reduced demand for year-round workers. However, as farm consolidation continues, also fostered in part by mechanization, we may anticipate a stabilizing and perhaps eventually increasing demand for permanent workers.
>
> For workers who are primarily or exclusively hired farmworkers working at a sequence of farm jobs, the ramifications of mechanizing important labor using activities are difficult to assess. Mechanization of a key activity can create gaps in the sequence or package of employment either leaving workers idle during this period or leading them to seek alternative employment. This period of adjustment can create severe hardships for workers. In an economy in which demand for farm and unskilled labor is declining, alternative employment is likely to be difficult to find and less remunerative. If the gap occurs for migratory workers away from home the problems are compounded. The mechanization of the snap bean harvest provides one recent example of such a disruption in the Northeast.
>
> In addition to the hardships created for workers, the disruption of the employment sequence and the eventual reestablishment of a new sequence can lead to a shortage of workers for other activities in the original sequence. In many areas there is a dominate seasonal labor using crop

> and many subordinate crops which draw on the seasonal labor force before or after the dominate activity. Mechanization of the dominate activity may lead to severe labor shortages in subsidiary activities, at least temporarily. When such a breakdown in the job sequence occurs the employer's alternative is to substitute regular or temporary workers." (13,p.217)

Mechanization has substantially affected farmworkers over the past two years, as indicated in data gathered by this study. Sixty-six percent of questionnaire respondents noted that a considerable increase of mechanization had taken place during that time. Only 3% indicated a decrease; the remainder said no change had occured. In addition, 63% agreed with the statement that more crops were being harvested by machines this year. Of that 63% agreeing that there had been increased mechanization, 42% strongly agreed and 21% moderately agreed. Data gathered at the conferences was more impressionistic and not as easily quantifiable, but participants confirmed the view that mechanization has been severely affecting unemployment.

REGIONAL UNEMPLOYMENT

The conferences presented regional pictures of the levels of unemployment and some figures were extracted. Although the individual figures presented are subject to question, the conference participants generally felt that the official unemployment figures generated by the state employment service agencies were very susceptible to challenge. The number of migrants within a state is usually underestimated, and any conclusions based on those figures are often invalid as a consequence. For example, very serious misreporting and misrepresentation of data occurred in Colorado where the state employment service computer system listed only 95 farmworkers in a ten county area, although conference participants stated the farmworker population in that area actually approached 1500. (7)

Conference participants in San Antonio felt that the unemployment levels in Texas ranged from 18% in the Rio Grande Valley to 14% in the Panhandle region. (8) In New England, unemployment levels were said to range from a low of 8% in Rochester, New York to between 11% and 18% in New Jersey. (4) In the states of Utah, Colorado, New Mexico, and Arizona, the unemployment figures were seen to be higher than 10%. (7) In the South, the following unemployment figures were given: Tennessee, 9.4%; Alabama, 9.2%; Mississippi, 8.0%; South Carolina and Georgia, 9.0%. (6) The geographic area composed of the states of North Dakota, Iowa, Wisconsin and Minnesota reported unemployment figures to be at least 20%, if not higher. (9) The reported figures for California were seen as problematic due to the fact that the participants felt that a true unemployment level could not be ascertained because of the serious rate of underemployment in that state. Conference data related stories of farmworker families in California being ready for work at five o'clock in the morning and working for only two hours. The farmworker who works two hours a day is technically employed, but conference participants felt that is only slightly better than being unemployed. (1) In Washington state, unemployment fluctuates from 8% to 15%. (5) No specific levels of unemployment were presented at the Midwest conference in Indianapolis.

However, 40% of questionnaire respondents from that area indicated strong agreement with the statement that fewer jobs were available to farmworkers this year than over the past year; an additional 60% of the respondents moderately agreed. With the added numbers of migrants in the stream and with unemployment reported higher than last year, unemployment levels in the Midwest can be assumed to be moderately high.

DOWNWARD PRESSURE ON WAGES

As mechanization continues to displace workers, the expansion of the labor market raises the level of competition among farmworkers for the fewer and fewer jobs available. Compounding the displacement problem caused by advancing mechanization is the illegal labor force which is composed mostly of Mexican nationals. The extent of the influx of this cheap labor source cannot be fully known, but conference data generally indicated an increase of illegal aliens whose entry further expanded the labor market and depressed wage levels. (1,5,7,8)

The extent to which wage levels have been depressed by increased competition for farmwork varies from area to area. Conference participants in Texas stated that wage levels have remained the same. Wages in Edinburgh ranged from $1.00 to $2.50 per hour although the average wage was $1.60. The increase to $2.50 per hour occurred when the farmworkers' union pulled workers from the field at a time when cantaloupes were ripening and beginning to rot. The farmers had to raise the incentive to bring people into the fields and harvest the cantaloupes. Wages around Rio Grande City averaged $1.80 to harvest the melons. (8)

In Florida, the Fair Labor Standard Act Amendment of 1974 raised the minimum wage for farmworkers to $1.80 per hour by January 1, 1975. Excluded were farmworkers whose employer did not use more than 500 man days of agricultural labor during any calendar year and the Act as amended also excluded local hand harvesters who were employed in agriculture less than thirteen weeks during the preceding calendar year and were paid on a piecework basis. In addition, farmworkers are excluded from the maximum hours and overtime provisions of the Act. (2,20)

In New England, conference participants claimed various wages have fallen from $2.15 per hour last year to between $1.80 and $2.10 per hour this year. Wages had been expected to rise to $2.35 per hour. In New Jersey the wages are $2.30 per hour for a four hour unit. In general, the wages are the same as last year, according to conference participants. (4)

In the Southwestern state of Utah, conference data indicated wages have fallen. Because of mechanization in the onion crop and the high level of unemployment, farmworkers have suffered a 40% decline in wages. Also, in Utah, it was said wages fell for the harvesting of sugar beets from the 1974 rate of $23 to between $15 and $19 per sugar beet acre. This represents an income loss of between 18 and 36%. The loss of income was even more severe in Colorado where conference participants indicated the rate per sugar beet acre fell to $11, a loss of 64%. It was suggested that the expiration of the Sugar Act seriously depressed wages in these sugar beet producing states. (7)

Wages in the West and Northwest depend heavily on the work and location, so no comparative wage rates could be affixed. Conference participants said wages can vary from $1.00 to $3.00 an hour. (5) Wages, generally, have increased slightly in California. (1) In Idaho, wages have also risen slightly from $2.25 or $2.30 per hour two years ago to $2.50 or $2.60 per hour in 1975. (7) Although little data was gathered for the South at the Atlanta conference, 36% of questionnaire respondents in that geographic area strongly disagreed and 18% moderately disagreed with the statement that wages were higher this year than last year. Only 18% strongly agreed with the statement and the remainder, 27%, indicated no change in the wage level for the South this year as compared to last year.

Both conference and questionnaire data, then, indicate that wages have generally remained static or decreased. Increases have been slight and are restricted to certain areas within a few geographical regions, thus not greatly affecting the farmworker income average. The data gathered at the conferences and obtained by the questionnaire are not totally sustained by our reviews of Department of Agriculture data. Department of Agriculture data show a definite increase in farmworker income levels. The limitations of government data have been expressed within the Demographics section of this report. So in dealing with the Department of Agriculture figures, we need to keep the reliability level in mind. Although government data has not been provided for 1975, it could possibly sustain our immediate findings for this year, that wage levels have remained the same or have been depressed.

That wage levels have remained the same or even depressed is not surprising. Table 4 and Chart I present 1970-74 income data for seasonal and migrant farmworkers and for the average American family. (16)* The data for migrant and seasonal farmworkers is presented so that total income average and farmwork income averages are given for both groups. It can be seen in Chart I that the average farmwork income for migrants was depressed in 1971. Total migrant income declined in 1971 and 1973. Although the 1974 total migrant income increased, the increase could not be attributed to a rise in migrant farmwork income. In fact, the average 1973 farmwork earnings for migrants rose by only one dollar (from $1607 to $1608) in 1974. (16)

The Department of Agriculture data is suspect in the 1972 migrant total income figure. It is questionable that migrants could have increased their total income in 1972 by 78.9 percent or $1287 (see Table 4), even though the general unemployment rate had fallen from the 1971 level, making available non-agricultural employment opportunities.

Chart I also vividly compares the income level of farmworkers with the income level of the average American family. There is an obvious disparity, with the average family receiving an income in 1974 over four times as great as the average migrant family and 7 times as great as the average seasonal farmworker's family. Even more significant than the aboslute gap in incomes, however, is the fact that the gap is widening: average family income has grown more rapidly than average

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*Compiled from figures of The Hired Farm Working Force reports of 1970-74. See bibliography.

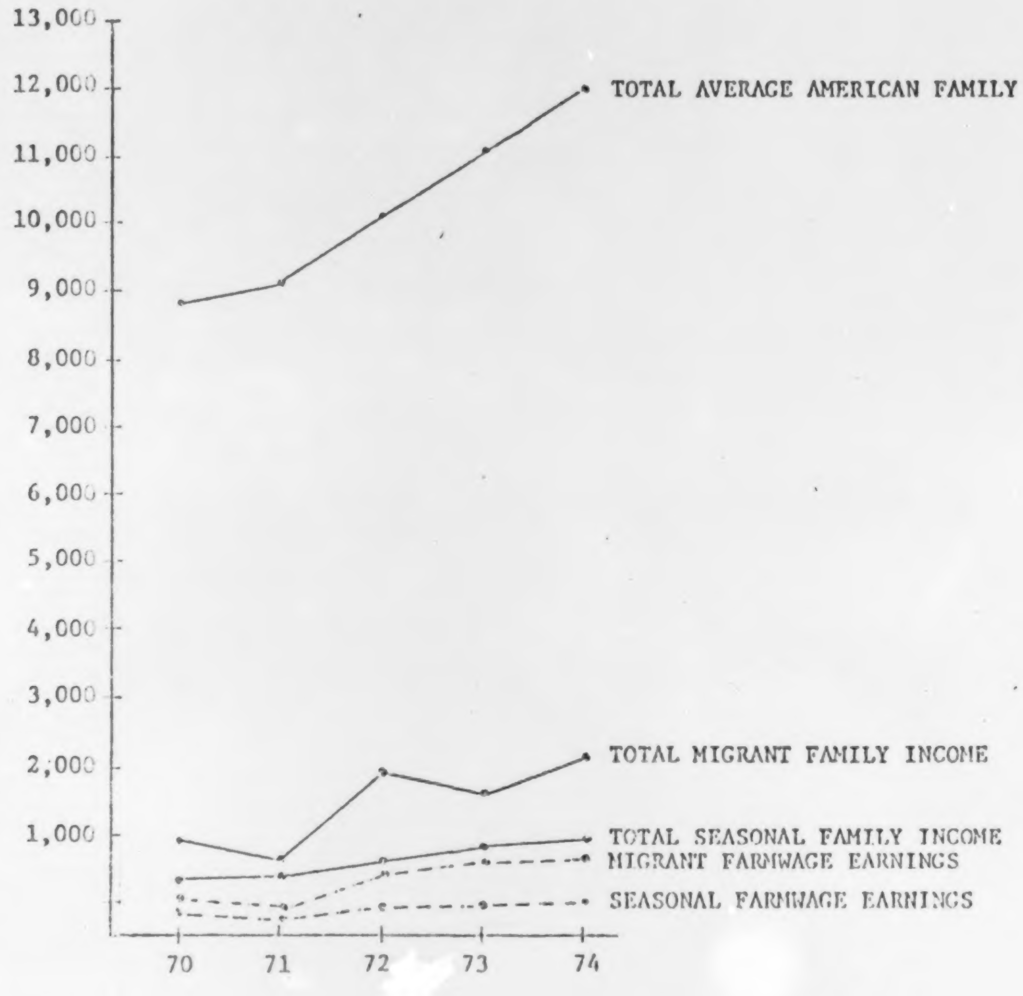
TABLE 4

INCOME AVERAGES FOR THE MIGRANT AND SEASONAL FARMWORKERS AND FOR THE AVERAGE AMERICAN FAMILY, 1970-1974

	1970	1971			1972			1973			1974			TOTAL $GAIN
AVERAGE AMERICAN FAMILY														
TOTAL INCOME	$9867	$10285	+$418	+4.1%	$11116	+$831	+8.0%	$12051	+$935	+8.4%	$12836	+$785	+6.5%	+$2969
AVERAGE MIGRANT FARMWORKER														
TOTAL INCOME	$1930	$1630	-$300	-15.6%	$2917	+$1287	+78.9%	$2587	-$330	-11.4%	$3097	+$510	+19.7%	+$1167
FARM INCOME	$1202	$987	-$215	-17.9%	$1400	+$413	+41.8%	$1607	+$207	+14.7%	$1608	+$1	-	+$406
AVERAGE SEASONAL FARMWORKER														
TOTAL INCOME	$1384	$1398	+$14	+1%	$1574	+$176	+13.0%	$1796	+$222	+14.0%	$1839	+$43	+2.0%	+$455
FARM INCOME	$ 704	$ 589	-$115	-16.0	$ 757	+$168	+29.0%	$ 878	+$121	+16.0%	$ 963	+$85	+9.6%	+$259

CHART I

COMPARISON OF FARMWORKER INCOME LEVELS AND THE AVERAGE AMERICAN FAMILY INCOME, 1970 - 1974



farmworker income. This can readily be observed in Chart I. The slope of the line depicting average family income is steeper than the slope of either of the lines representing average total income for migrants and seasonal farmworkers. Between 1970 and 1974, according to Table 4, average family income increased by $2969, while the total incomes of the average migrant and seasonal farmworker grew by only $1167 and $455, respectively.

INFLATION AND FARMWORKER BUYING POWER

The relatively slow growth of farmworker incomes has been made still worse by inflation, which has cut deeply into their family budgets. Table 5 shows that between 1972 and 1974 the income of the average American family rose by 15.5%, while average incomes for seasonal and migrant farmworkers increased by 16.8% and 6.1%, respectively. At the same time, however, the Consumer Price Index rose by 17.9%. Buying power declined in each category, but migrants were the hardest hit insofar as they fell furthest behind their 1972 economic level. Inflation forced them to cut their spending by almost 13% in 1974 relative to 1972. Seasonal farmworkers, whose incomes increased by the largest percentage (though by the smallest absolute amount--$265), were also worse off in 1974 than in 1972, due to the effects of inflation.

Furthermore, the relatively large percentage gain in income among seasonal workers was merely a result of their small income base in 1972; if average family income in the nation as a whole had increased by $265, the percentage increase would have been only 2.4%.

TABLE 5

TOTAL INCOME AVERAGES COMPARED TO CHANGES IN CONSUMER PRICE INDEX

1972 - 1974

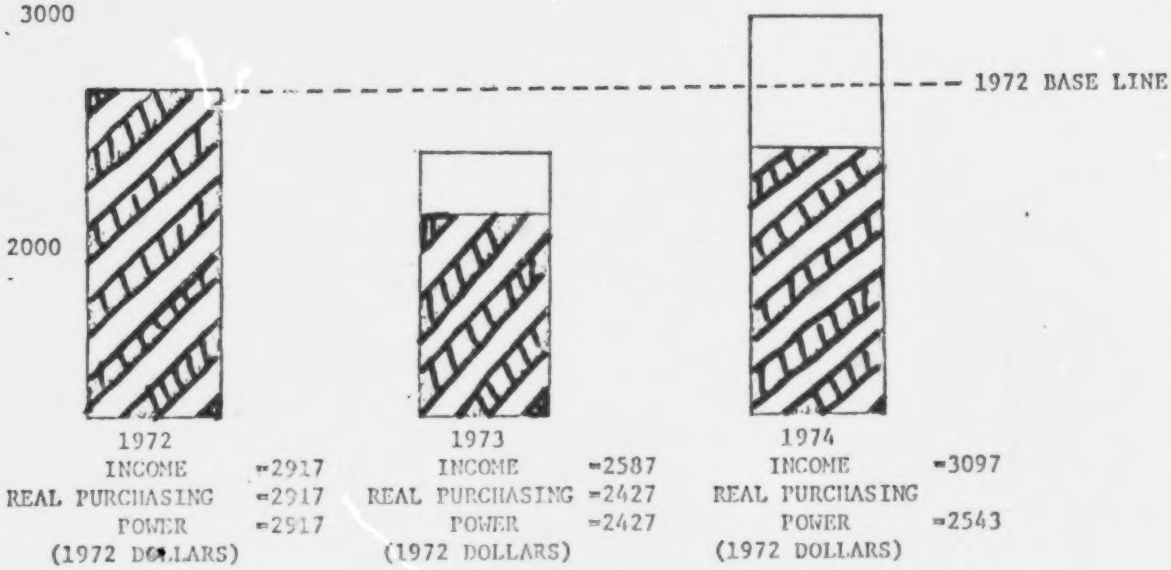
	1972	1974	1972-74 GAIN	% GAIN
AVERAGE FAMILY TOTAL INCOME	$11,116	$12,836	$1,720	15.5
AVERAGE MIGRANT TOTAL INCOME	$ 2,917	$ 3,097	$ 180	6.1
AVERAGE SEASONAL FARMWORKER TOTAL INCOME	$ 1,574	$ 1,839	$ 265	16.8
CONSUMER PRICE INDEX =100	125.3	147.7	-	17.9

The impact of inflation on migrants was especially dramatic in a year such as 1973 when the cost of living rose by 6.2% and the average income of migrants fell by 11.4% for a total decrease in purchasing power of almost 18%. Using 1972 as the base year (in which migrants were already below the poverty line), Chart J depicts the severe decline in purchasing power in 1973 due to the combined effects of inflation and a reduction in total income. Even with a substantial (19.7%) gain in income in 1974, the average migrant was still below the 1972 level of purchasing power. It can be said that migrant families are lagging two years in attempting to catch up with inflation. Furthermore, with the data gathered in 1975 for this study, although not easily quantifiable, it appears that the gap will widen rather than become narrower.

The questionnaire also supplied pertinent data on inflation. Questionnaire respondents were asked if farmworker wage increases had kept up with the rise in the cost of living. Ninety-one percent of respondents indicated that the rise in the cost of living had exceeded the rise in wages. A similar number indicated that the farmworkers' work-related costs have increased more than his earnings have. Seventy percent strongly agreed with the statement that farmworkers could not buy the things they used to with their money (only 8% disagreed). These results give credence to Chart J and its content in that farmworker purchasing power has seriously declined.

CHART J

COMPARISON OF PURCHASING POWER OF MIGRANTS 1972 - 1974



(Hatched areas represent buying power in 1972 dollars. Remaining area represent portion of income eroded by inflation since 1972.)

GASOLINE AND THE COST OF TRAVEL

When asked to rank various items in terms of their contribution to the increase in work-related costs, respondents indicated on the average the following sequence: 1) food expenses, 2) gasoline, 3) utilities, 4) car repairs, 5) medical expenses, 6) housing costs away from home, and 7) clothing. Chart K presents data concerning the rise in the cost of gasoline. Respondents were asked to compare the price of a gallon of gasoline a year ago with current prices. Although the responses were highly regionalized, they nevertheless provide a national picture of the rise in the cost of gasoline, ranked second in the items contributing significantly to the rise in the cost of living of farmworkers. Most respondents felt that a year ago, gasoline prices fell generally between 42 and 56 cents per gallon. Most respondents now feel that those prices range between 52 and 66 cents per gallon. This price increase is especially critical for migrants since many of them drive old cars with low gas mileage, being unable to afford the investment in a newer, more efficient automobile.

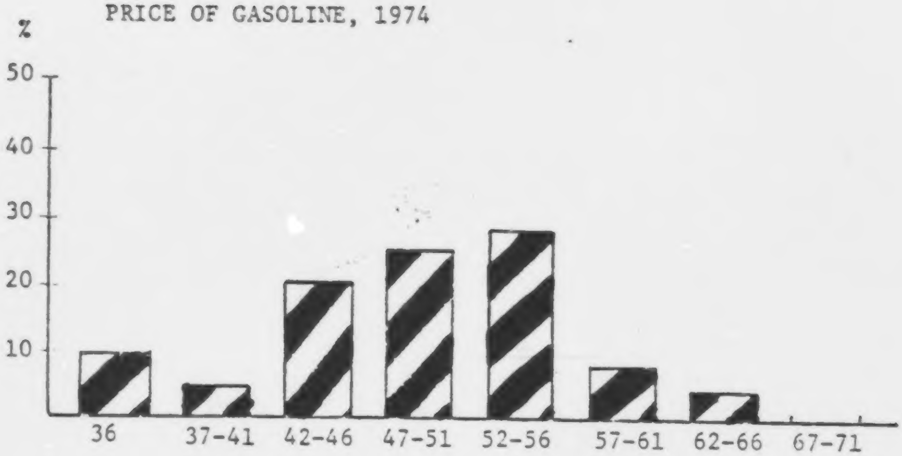
The significance of this rise bears directly on the amount of travel migrants undertake. By its very definition 'migrant' implies mobility and a migrant's journey throughout the farmland of the United States might easily average two thousand miles. Furthermore, migrants' journeys apparently are not shortening. The statement that farmworkers are not travelling as far as they used to drew a response of 58% disa-

CHART K

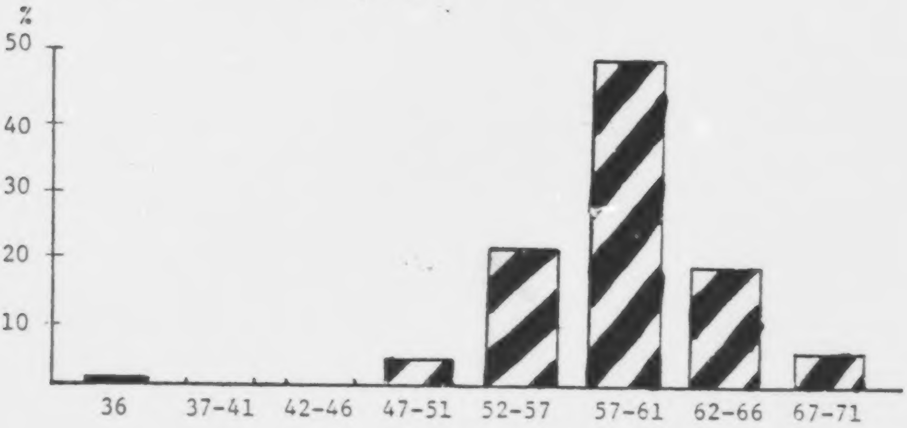
COMPARISON OF GASOLINE PRICES AS REPORTED BY QUESTIONNAIRE DATA,

1974 - 1975

PRICE OF GASOLINE, 1974



PRICE OF GASOLINE, 1975



greeing and only 19% agreeing. In response to the statement that there are more people looking for work this year than last year, 69% agreed while only 19% disagreed. Finally, the 41% strongly agreeing with the statement that more people are coming to the respondent's area looking for work suggest that migrants are not only travelling farther but that additional migrants are travelling to areas they have not worked before.

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CHAPTER 4

COMPREHENSIVE EMPLOYMENT AND TRAINING ACT (CETA) TITLE III, SECTION 303 AND OTHER MANPOWER TRAINING PROGRAMS FOR FARMWORKERS

CETA 303 represents one of the greatest expenditure of federal dollars for farmworkers at the present time. As stated in the Act's "Rules and Regulations" CETA 303 has a two fold purpose:

> [1] "Provision of services to migrant and other seasonally employed farmworkers and their families who wish to seek alternative job opportunities to seasonal farmwork. [2] Provision of services necessary to improve the well being of migrants and other seasonally employed farmworkers and their families who remain in the agricultural labor market..." (12,p.28982)

Services were to be provided to two target populations: manpower and supportive services to those farmworkers and their families seeking alternative job opportunities, and supportive services to other farmworkers and their families who remain in the agricultural labor market. Although it is stated that services will assist both groups of farmworkers, "the major share of funds expended by the Department of Labor for Migrant and Seasonal Farmworker programs...has been for manpower and related activities. Emphasis on this aspect of programming may stem from the fact that employment programs are more in keeping with the overall purposes of the CETA legislation and the mission of the department." (14,p.105)

MANPOWER TRAINING AND EDUCATIONAL SERVICES

Type of Applicant Chosen for Manpower Training Programs

As noted in the CETA 303 Rules and Regulations, the following persons are eligible for participation in 303 programs:

> Farmworkers and their dependents who have during the 18 months preceding their application for enrollment: (1) Received at least 50% of their total earned income as agricultural workers...during any consecutive 12-month period; and (2) Been employed in agriculture on a seasonal basis...; and (3) Been identified as economically disadvantaged as defined below:
> (i) Member of a family which receives cash welfare payments; or
> (ii) Member of a family whose annual family income in relation to family size does not exceed the poverty level determined in accordance with criteria established by the Office of Management and Budget...(12,p.28988)
>
> (The definitions utilized by DOL to describe "agricultural worker," "migrant farmworker" and "seasonal farmworker" are provided in the Demographics chapter of this report)

The target population designated by the Rules and Regulations encompasses approximately one million persons. Of this broad population base, only a limited number receive services under CETA 303. In most areas, the demand for entrance into manpower services programs is great, resulting in a situation where 303 program staff must choose who receives manpower services and who does not. One conference participant felt that the program design dictates who is picked for training. (8) However, the choice of recipients of manpower training pinpointed both the preferred trainee and those left out of manpower programs.

Preferred Applicants - The preferred applicant is between the ages of 18 and 29, and has at least a tenth grade education (although his or her functional level may be somewhat lower.) Women seem to represent the typical trainee in the South while men are more frequently chosen as trainees in other geographic areas. Applicants with some form of prior training are preferred, as are applicants with prior knowledge or exposure to a vocation in which they could be trained or directly placed. In user areas, seasonals are preferred over migrants.

These preferences are usually based on the ease with which clients can be trained and/or placed, the least cost expenditure by the 303 program per client, the criteria for entrance into contracted institutional training programs, and the greatest possibility for trainee retention in manpower services programs. Employers prefer to hire young people (under 30). A tenth grade education is often needed, due to entrance requirements of contracted institutional training programs. Women constitute a large segment of those enrolled in 303 training in the South because they are often the head of a household and the principal breadwinner in the family. Additionally, women are found to more often meet the tenth grade education requirement. Those with prior training require less skills training and are, therefore, less expensive to send through training programs and easier to place. In user areas, seasonals, constituting a relatively stationary population, are more assured of completing training and retaining employment than are recently settle out migrants who "get home sick" and rejoin migrant crews when the season begins again. (5)

To assure training completion and placement of their enrollees in line with their funded mission, 303 programs in both home base and user areas are forced to "cream" their client population, selecting only those few most likely to complete training and gain and retain employment. Others, who would require more agency resources and time are neglected.

CETA 303's are aware of their own creaming but feel forced into the situation primarily because of what they view as judgmental techniques utilized by DOL to evaluate program effectiveness. According to the CETA 303 "Rules and Regulations," "performance standards" are set "to establish comparative standards of performance for projects and activities funded under section 303." (12,p.28990) Some of these standards for "training and employment" include:

- "One hundred percent of enrollment and referral goals identified in the grant achieved.
- "Eighty percent of placement goals identified in the grant achieved.
- "Seventy-five percent of those placed continue to be on the job 90 days after placement in unsubsidized employment."

And for "classroom training and on-the-job training," CETA 303 standards require that:

- "One hundred percent of enrollment goals identified in the grant be achieved.
- "Ninety percent of enrollees in classroom training and on-the-job training and their families receive services.

- "Sixty percent of those enrolled in classroom training are placed in unsubsidized employment after training either by their own efforts or through program efforts." (12,p.28990)

These standards were modified from the original August 6, 1974 CETA 303 Rules and Regulations, with language "added to make the performance standards...benchmark guidelines rather than minimum levels of performance." (12,p.28981) However, statements in the regulations, such as, "The Secretary shall apply these standards when evaluating the quality and effectiveness of the components of section 303 programs," (12,p.28990) still left the impression with 303s that their program performance would be judged in terms of these standards. Given the fact that 303 funding is awarded on a competitive basis, these standards are interpreted by 303 programs to imply a quantitative rather than a qualitative success measurement and with the present unemployment situation, participants felt it was hard to meet program placement goals and felt compelled to cream. (4) This interpretation was also made by the National Advisory Council on Economic Opportunity in an analysis of the intent and practice of CETA 303 legislation.

> The evaluation criteria DOL has established for its farmworker grants stresses the number of job placements achieved annually by the grantee. Therefore, although a wide variety of programs are authorized by the CETA legislation and former OEO grantees are accustomed to operating a broad spectrum of programs designed for the particular needs of their locale, grantees are now encouraged to concentrate their attention on only the most employable of the farmworker population. (14,p.105)

Excluded Applicants - As a consequence to these preferences, many farmworkers eligible for, and in need of manpower services are not served. This includes the elderly, the less skilled, and those who are not heads of households. (Concerning the latter category, an interesting issue was raised at two conferences where participants indicated they were not allowed to train more than one person per household, but during conference discussion they came to the conclusion that this was not prohibited by 303 regulations [6,5]). A great proportion of the farmworker population with less than a tenth grade education is also excluded from training programs. The only exceptions are a few classroom training programs, operated directly by 303s which have enough funds to operate their own training programs, conducted on a fifth grade education level. In-stream migrants are left out of manpower services most consistently. In addition to the reluctance of programs to recruit migrants for manpower services, migrants are generally not in an area long enough to receive training. They are also reluctant to settle-out in-stream where many communities view them with hostility as outsiders. For those in-stream programs where training is contracted to institutional training facilities, migrants are often not in the area when the semester begins and are not allowed to enroll in the middle of the program when they do come to the area. For example, at the Midwest Conference it was stated that migrant women coming upstream who could easily enroll in a brief training program and obtain jobs as bilingual secretaries, for which there is a great demand, cannot do so as they are not on hand for the not on hand for the beginning of such programs. Additionally, it was found that in-stream migrants were interested in entering manpower training programs, but only when there was no farmwork available. Again, this makes them available for training after in-stream contracted programs have started.

On the other hand, migrants might decide to remain in home base areas if they can obtain entrance into 303 manpower training programs. (8) These farmworkers who migrated the previous year would rather stay in home base than return to the stream. They first attempt to locate employment or enter a manpower services program locally. If unsuccesful, economic necessity forces them into agricultural work-related migration. (Table 6 provides a regional breakdown by number of 303 grantees. Table 7 provides a breakdown by region and state of distribution of grant funds. No information was available regarding the number of persons served per region. [17])

Types of Training

Specifically, manpower training as stated in the CETA regulations, can take the form of:

- "Classroom training...any training conducted in an institutional setting...to provide individuals with technical skills and information...to perform a specific job or group of jobs.
- "On-the-job training [OJT]...training conducted in a work environment designed to enable individuals to learn a bonafide skill and/or qualify for a particular occupation.
- "Work experience...a work assignment with a public or private nonprofit employing agency." (12,p.28989)

"Training designed to enhance the employability of individuals by upgrading basic skills," (12,p.28989) e.g., training in English-as-a-second language, remedial education, and assistance in obtaining a GED, can also be employed. Another manpower services area, job development/placement,

TABLE 6

*REGIONAL DISTRIBUTION OF CETA 303 GRANTEES

REGION	NUMBER OF 303 GRANTEES
Region I	3
Region II	7
Region III	5
Region IV	11
Region V	7
Region VI	16
Region VII	5
Region VIII	8
Region IX	13
Region X	5

*Utilizing DOL regional divisions

Source: "DOLs Directory of Migrant Seasonal Farmworkers Grantees," 1975.

TABLE 7

REGIONAL AND STATE DISTRIBUTION OF CETA 303 GRANT FUNDS, FISCAL YEAR 1976

REGION I	AMOUNT PER STATE	AMOUNT PER REGION
Connecticut	$241,400	
Massachusetts	223,200	
Maine	89,000	
New Hampshire	23,000	
Rhode Island	17,000	
		$593,600
REGION II		
New Jersey	$ 549,000	
New York	585,000	
Puerto Rico	1,869,800	
		$2,913,800
REGION III		
Delaware	$ 86,000	
Maryland	117,200	
Pennsylvania	441,000	
Virginia	231,000	
West Virginia	100,000	
		$975,200
REGION IV		
Alabama	$ 810,000	
Florida	3,309,000	
Georgia	503,800	
Kentucky	606,700	
Mississippi	900,000	
North Carolina	4,122,800	
Tennessee	710,400	
South Carolina	Not Given	
		$10,962,700 +South Carolina

REGION V	AMOUNT PER STATE	AMOUNT PER REGION
Illinois	$ 729,000	
Indiana	703,800	
Michigan	1,027,800	
Minnesota	127,200	
Ohio	561,500	
Wisconsin	495,000	
		$3,644,300
REGION VI		
Arkansas	$ 517,500	
Louisiana	428,200	
New Mexico	900,000	
Oklahoma	502,200	
Texas	5,300,000	
		$7,647,900
REGION VII		
Iowa	$230,100	
Kansas	371,500	
Missouri	511,200	
Nebraska	106,500	
		$1,219,300
REGION VIII		
Colorado	$946,800	
Montana	333,000	
North Dakota	209,500	
South Dakota	228,800	
Utah	460,000	
Wyoming	32,000	
		$2,210,100
REGION IX		
Arizona	$ 989,200	
California	6,599,300	
Hawaii	272,000	
Nevada	63,000	
		$7,923,500
REGION X		
Idaho	$ 461,300	
Oregon	794,500	
Washington	1,448,00	
		$2,703,800

Source: Bureau of National Affairs, Manpower Information, Inc., Current Reports, Vol.6, Number 12, February 19, 1975, p.272.

concerns the direct placement of eligible clients and placement of trainees and OJT candidates. All 303 programs engage in this activity.

Conference participants indicated they were heavily involved in the first two types of manpower training, making few comments about the third type of training, work experience. Participants at seven conferences indicated their 303 programs were primarily concerned with skills training (1,3,4,5,6,8,9), while those at three conferences stated that they were involved in OJT. (4,6,8) No conference participants referred to any involvement with work experience programs. However, in response to the questionnaire, 303 respondents (approximately 56% of all respondents) indicated they provided the following manpower services:

	Yes	No
Classroom Training	94%	6%
OJT	81%	19%
Work Experience	83%	17%

This shows a greater provision of a variety of training service than was reflected in the conferences.

Conference participants expressed frustration at the funding levels they negotiated with DOL to provide training. They indicated DOL was cost conscious and concerned with placing in employment the greatest number of people at the least possible cost. A few participants said they felt compelled to provide OJT rather than skills training, as OJT costs less per participant. Additionally, some vocational training which may be in demand, requires extensive and costly training and as such, 303s felt DOL views it as an undesirable training alternative. (8)

Classroom Training - For the most part, 303 programs contracted training services with local educational institutions, vocational centers, industrial manpower training programs, and CETA Title I-II-IV prime sponsor training programs. Conference participants expressed a great deal of dissatisfaction with these arrangements and noted problems such as:

- ° Inability to train in identified need areas, e.g. health professionals, because no local institution offered such a training course.
- ° Difficulty in having farmworkers enter such programs because they did not meet the minimum educational requirement for the program.
- ° Programs being timed to begin when seasonals are employed and hesitant to quit employment to enter manpower training programs.
- ° Training programs starting in user areas, while migrants are not in the area.

Other problems result from the inability to control training provided by contracted institutional training facilities. CETA 303 enrollees are placed in classes with regular enrollees of the institution, and no special considerations are made for their unique training problems. Usually no bilingual instruction is provided if needed in classes. Farmworker enrollees are expected to keep pace with regular enrollees who usually have a higher educational and skill level. In order to keep pace, they must, for the most part, receive outside tutoring and counseling which is usually provided by the 303 program.

Conference participants also felt they had little control over the quality of training provided by some contracted training institutions. However, they felt locked into these institutions, as they are the only local facilities providing vocational training. One alternative would be to transfer trainees to other locations for training, but the cost of such a move is prohibitive.

Although problems with contracted training institutions exist, cost again hinders 303s from establishing their own training programs. One 303 which contracts with industrial manpower training programs compared the cost of providing services to regular trainees with the cost for a farmworker trainee, from enrollment to completion of training. The average cost per regular trainee was $500 compared with an average cost per farmworker trainee, due to special remedial counseling and bilingual needs, of $1,154. (3)

One 303 program in the South circumvented problems associated with contracting for training by establishing a residential vocational skills center which provided training in specified areas with a curriculum aimed specifically at farmworkers. The special educational and counseling needs of the farmworker trainee are well integrated into the training program as are a range of supportive services for the trainee and his or her family. However, the costs involved in this special program are also very high, and only 303s receiving a large grant are able to operate this type of program (Only three grantees are known by InterAmerica to have an operation of this type at the present time). Areas in which CETA 303's indicated they provide skills training included:

- ° Welding.
- ° Mechanics, auto repair.
- ° Typing, clerical work, and work as a receptionist.
- ° Cosmotology - barbers, hair stylists.
- ° Building construction.

Other training programs noted included:

- ° Licensed practical nurse (LPN), nurses aide, and other medium skilled health positions.
- ° Farm machinery operation and maintenance (to be provided through a skill center in the near future).
- ° Heavy equipment operation and mechanics.

Conference participants indicated they choose training fields based on state employment calculations, the federal government's Occupational Outlook Handbook, assessment or survey of local employment needs, and skill training classes offered by contracted skill training institutions. One participant expressed dissatisfaction at having to train for jobs that exist rather than training for projected manpower priorities. (3) Another stated that due to lack of training sites and lack of funds for initiating training classes, programs may train a surplus of labor in one vocation, such as welding, resulting in newly skilled workers who are unable to find employment. (8)

Areas in which 303 programs would like to provide training but feel the cost is too prohibitive include:

- ° Trained health personnel. "It costs from $6,000 to $7,000 to train one lab technician." (8)
- ° Electricians, plumbers, and carpenters on a journeyman level, at a cost of $8,000 per slot.

Another problem noted in establishing certain types of training programs is the training time limitations. Trainees are not allowed to remain in training programs over 104 weeks, making extended training periods, over two years, inappropriate. Additionally, conference participants said that DOL sees one year training programs as being most cost effective, resulting in DOL primarily funding training programs which last one year or less.

On-the-Job-Training - OJT was seen by some participants as a desirable alternative to classroom skills training because of virtual guarantee of employment of the trained farmworker and its low cost compared to classroom training. Conference participants also indicated they felt DOL preferred OJT, noting that of the two types of training this is the only one which provides "inducements to employers" to encourage their participation. (12,p.28989) However, participants expressed concern that total reliance on OJT would, at some time, saturate the available local job market, particularly in remote rural areas where employment opportunities of any type are limited.

Participants in the South indicated there was some resistance to OJT in rural areas where most businesses are family affairs, undesirous of "outside" assistance. Acceptance of a federally associated OJT trainee would require them to adhere to CETA and other accompanying federal regulations and involve themselves in what they view as a prohibitive amount of required paperwork.

Work Experience - Most 303 programs are not engaged in extensive work experience activities, as noted both at conferences and through performance of an InterAmerica training and technical assistance (T and TA) contract to provide assistance to 303 grantees. (13) The reason, as indicated through the T&TA assistance, is that prime sponsors in most areas are heavily involved in work experience projects, taking most of the local available work experience slots. As these prime sponsors have the best access to other government agencies and are able to work with these agencies in work experience activities. Some cooperation between prime sponsors and 303 grantees in accepting enrollees into each other's programs was noted. (The 303s refer farmworker enrollees to prime sponsor work experience programs, and prime sponsors place work enrollees with 303 programs.)

Relocation as a Factor in Types of Training - Relocation assistance is provided to those trainees and or placement candidates and their families who must relocate to receive training or to secure employment. The CETA 303 Rules and Regulations limit such costs to an average of $600 per family, not to exceed $1,000 for any single family. (12,p.28991) Relocation was viewed by most conference participants as generally undesirable due to extensive costs and problems associated with moving farmworker families. However, since 303 programs are often located in rural areas where training and employment opportunities are scarce, relocation is a necessity.

Placement of Trainees

Programs have experienced placement problems due to lack of cooperation with other agencies, the general unemployment situation, and other factors mentioned above. However, some positive placement examples were recounted at the conferences. For example, one program indicated a ready job market for all trainees of a health training program. Negative experiences include: accusations from employers that "government training programs" lack sufficient depth to be of value in providing trained employees, difficulty in getting farmworkers into union controlled skill areas, employers' hesitancy to employ migrants, and the unavailability of employment in rural areas. Solutions posed by participants to alleviate these problems were:

- ° Allocation of more funds to training programs to allow for better instructors.
- ° More in-depth training.
- ° Larger living allowances for trainees.
- ° More supportive services.
- ° Better coordination with state and local governments and CETA agencies.

For the most part, 303 programs expressed frustration in trying to work with state employment agencies, although they were interested in or had tried to set up such required linkages. Often, it was noted, no cooperation between agencies is achieved, with the 303 programs feeling the state employment agency is unconcerned with farmworker employment, leaving any achievements made in placement to the 303 programs. In one area of the South, however, it was noted that employers will not accept employees sent directly from the 303 program, making it necessary to refer employees through the state employment service. Consequently, the state agency takes credit for the placement as DOL will not allow two agencies to take credit for placement of the same individual. (This is important to 303 programs as they feel they are evaluated in terms of the number of participants placed.)

Educational Activities

Within the range of educational assistance allowed under CETA to "enhance the employability of individuals by upgrading basic skills" (12, p.28989), 303s are engaged in programs to enlarge enrollee basic educational abilities, to allow them to enter 303 manpower training programs. Such activities include provision of remedial education, English-as-a-second language, and other adult education courses. Tuition assistance/extended education and talent search programs to allow eligible farmworkers or their children to receive higher educational training were also in evidence. (In this category, one program indicated it had put 40 students through an extended education program [6]). Adult basic education services can also be provided to the second category of 303 programs' clients--farmworkers who remain in agricultural employment. Basic adult education courses are usually handled in-house, with an instructor employed to teach an educational course. Problems encountered in providing educational services to both client groups include:

- A tendency toward creaming for enrollment in such programs due to the limitation of funds.
- Lack of funds to effectively deal with the high drop out rate among farmworker students.
- The inability to assist those who need several years of academic training to bring them up to the necessary level for entrance into vocational training programs due to the 104 week limit for enrollment in CETA programs.
- Inability of in-stream migrants to enroll in in-house or education courses contracted through local educational institutions, if they arrive in the area after the course has begun.

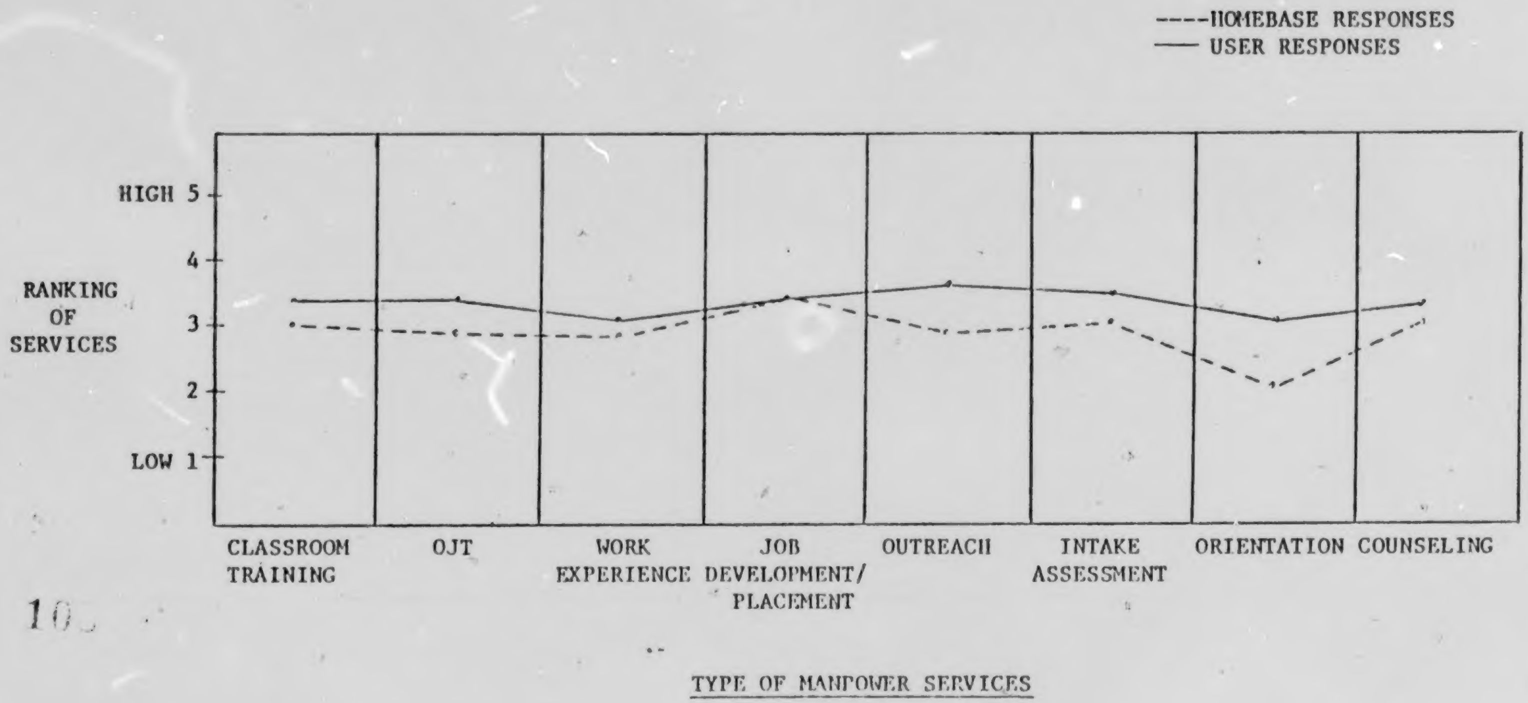
Assessment of Manpower

A general assessment of manpower training and placement services can be obtained by checking questionnaire responses to questions regarding "manpower services."

The 303 respondents to the questionnaire indicated they provided outreach, intake assessment, orientation, and counseling services as required by the CETA 303 rules and regulations. When asked about unmet need of manpower services in the areas above and in classroom training, OJT, work experience, and job development/placement, respondents answered predominantly in the mid range of responses. (Possible responses ranged from low unmet need [1] to high unmet need [5].) In weighing responses of home base respondents against user area respondents, mean answers in each category ranged from 2.6 to 3.7, with an overall mean of 3.1. (See Chart L for graph of homebase and user responses to the question of unmet need.)

CHART I.

COMPARISON OF HOMEBASE AND USER RESPONSES CONCERNING UNMET NEED OF MANPOWER SERVICES TO FARMWORKERS



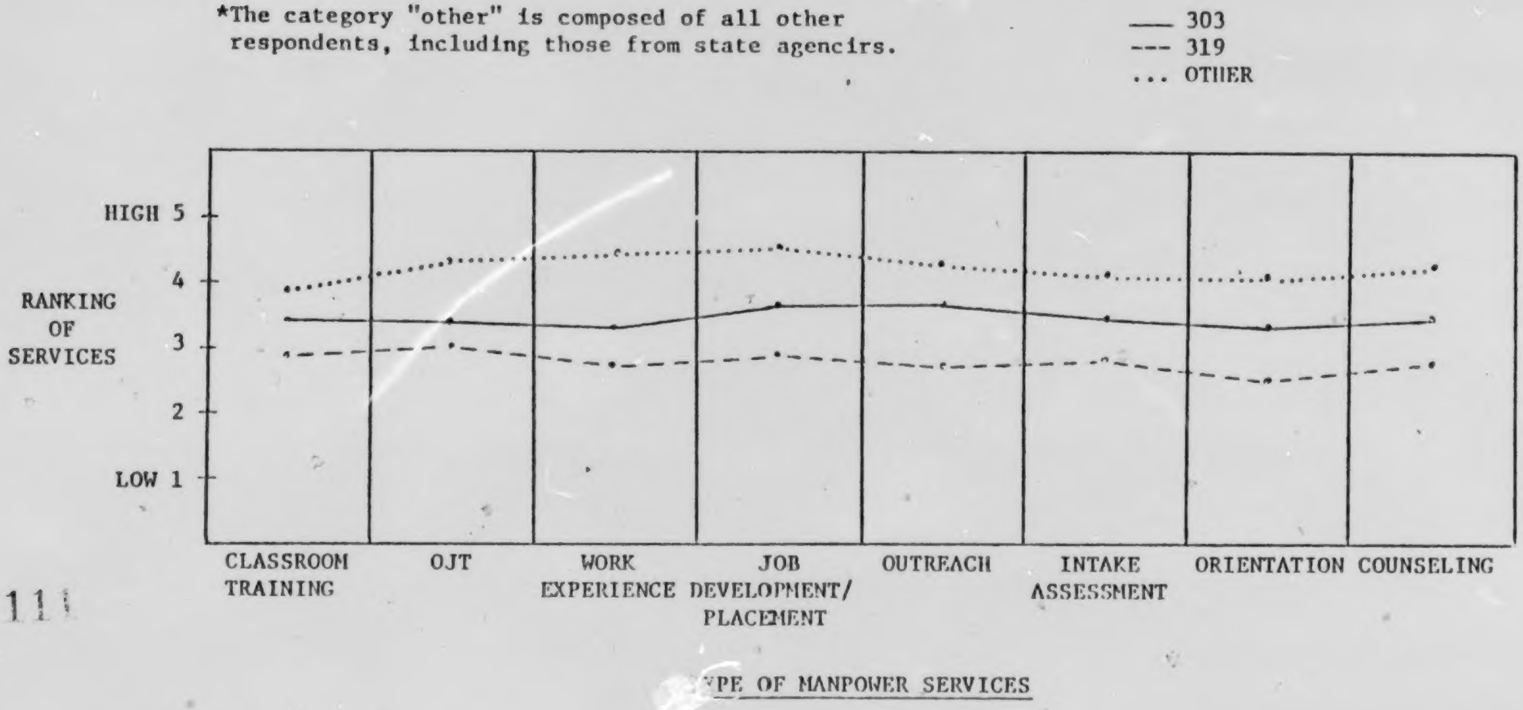
Except job development/placement (where responses for both groups fell at the same point), user area responses were uniformly higher than homebase responses in all categories, indicating the greater intensity with which the user area population regards the unmet need for manpower services. The user area respondents rated outreach as the highest unmet need, while the homebase respondents rated job development/placement highest. Both groups rated orientation the lowest unmet need, with the user group also pinpointing work experience as a low unmet need. The two groups differed most in rating outreach, with those from user areas feeling this was of greater importance than homebase respondents.

Chart M compares responses on the question of unmet need between those connected with CETA 303 programs, Migrant Health 319 programs, and "others" (a category composed of all other respondents, including those from state agencies). Those from 319s consistently rated all services lowest (average - 2.8 across all services). Those from 303s were in the middle (average - 3.4), and the "others" rated all services highest (average - 4.2). All three groups rated services fairly evenly within their average score, pointing to no services as being particularly high or low in unmet need.

On the question of usefulness of manpower services, all respondents averaged a high ranking - approximately 4.0, with outreach rated slightly higher. Homebase and user area respondents also rated these categories uniformly high, with means ranging from 3.4 to 4.3 and an overall mean across all services of 3.9, with user area respondents again generally rating categories higher than homebase respondents. (The only exception

CHART M

COMPARISON OF 303, 319 MIGRANT HEALTH PROJECTS, AND OTHER* RESPONSES CONCERNING UNMET NEED OF MANPOWER SERVICES TO FARMWORKERS



*The category "other" is composed of all other respondents, including those from state agencies.

was the category work experience which the home base respondents rated higher.) (See Chart N). User area respondents ranked outreach as having the highest usefulness, while home base respondents rated job development/placement highest. These answers correspond to the answers given by both groups regarding unmet need in these categories. The outreach response by user area respondents also corresponds to the answer given by all respondents for highest usefulness category. User area respondents ranked work experience the lowest category, while homebase respondents ranked orientation lowest. The answer given by homebase respondents corresponds to the low emphasis given by both groups on the unmet need of orientation. This indicates a general lack of concern for orientation as compared to other manpower service categories. However, it should be noted that the greatest discrepancy between homebase and user area responses rating usefulness of services fell in the orientation category with the user group ranking this category higher. The counseling category also received a wide discrepancy between user area and homebase rankings.

Respondent ranking of service usefulness examined by type of respondent agency reveals a high ranking by 303 respondents for all services, with an average ranking of 4.3 across all categories. (See Chart O) Responses of 319 and "other" respondents are intermixed (averaging 3.4 for 319 respondents and 3.3 for "other" respondents), with "other" respondents ranking five services above the ranking given by 319 respondents. CETA 303 respondents rated work experience the lowest of all services, perhaps re-

CHART N

COMPARISON OF HOMEBASE AND USER RESPONSES CONCERNING USEFULNESS OF MANPOWER SERVICES TO FARMWORKERS

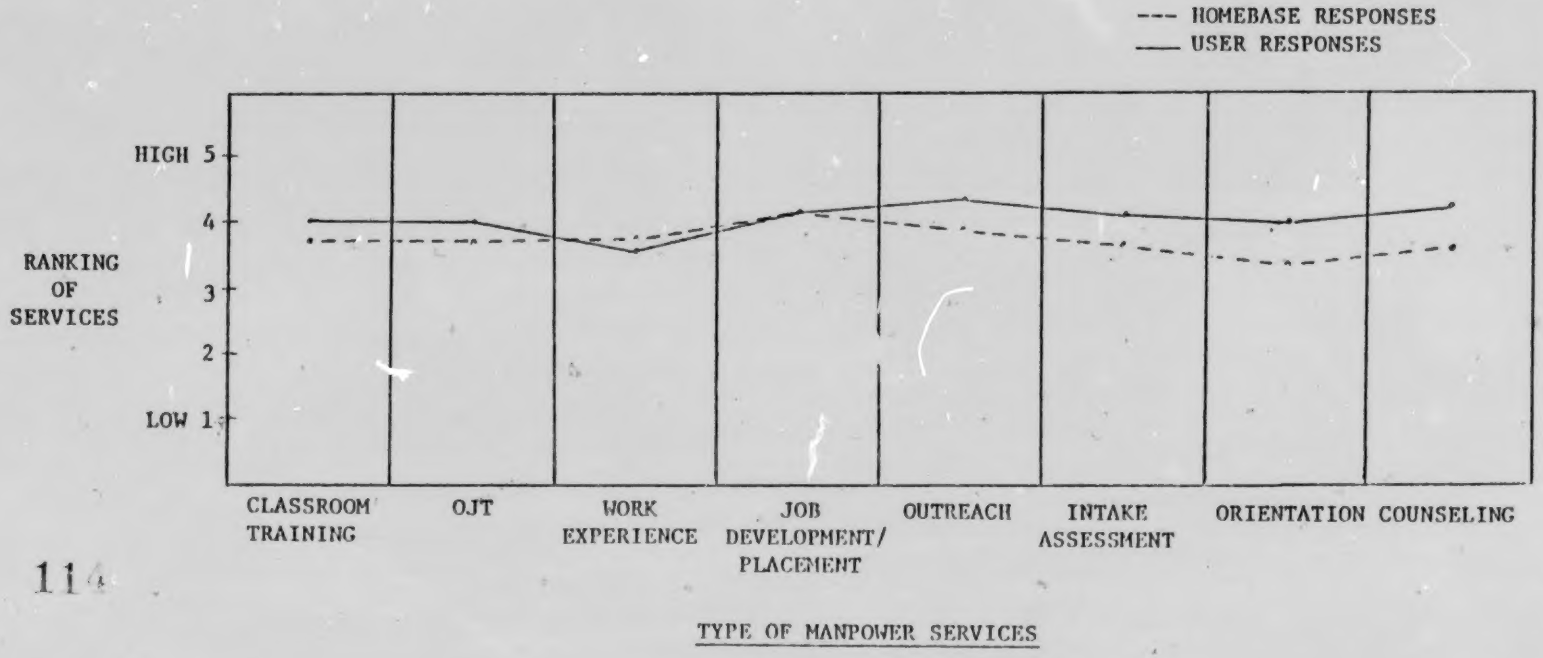
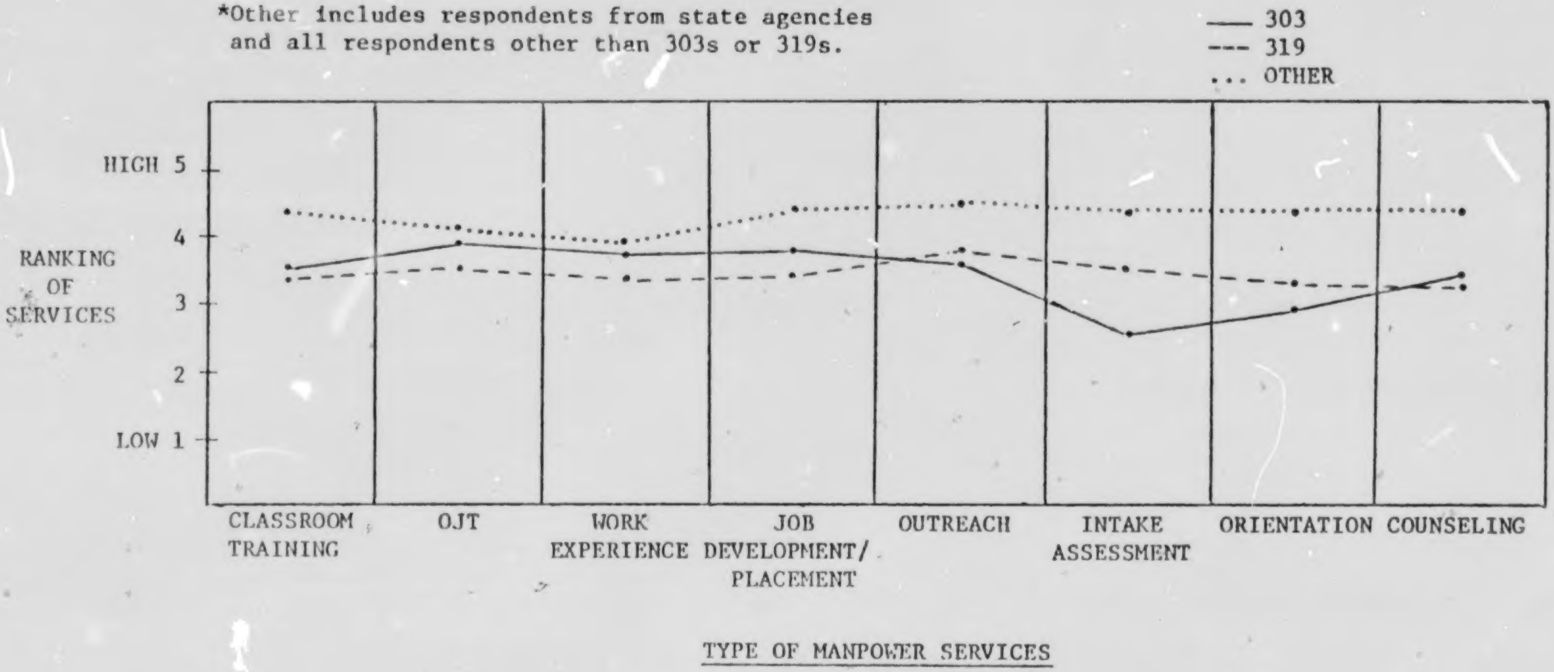


CHART O

COMPARISON OF 303, 319 MIGRANT HEALTH PROJECTS, AND OTHER* RESPONSES CONCERNING USEFULNESS OF MANPOWER SERVICES TO FARMWORKERS



*Other includes respondents from state agencies and all respondents other than 303s or 319s.

flecting their lack of involvement in this area and "other" respondents rated intake assessment the lowest of all services. Both 303 and 319 respondents ranked outreach services the highest.

SUPPORTIVE SERVICES UNDER CETA

Under the CETA regulations, 303 programs are allowed to provide health and medical services, child care, emergency assistance, residential support, nutritional services, family planning, legal assistance and a few other services to manpower trainees and their families and "to assist those farmworkers, who remain as seasonal agricultural employees, in improving their well-being." (12,p.28989) Supportive services requiring professional assistance--health care and family planning, for example--are usually provided on a contract basis. Other services, such as residential support and emergency assistance, are provided by staff personnel during the performance of their regular duties. Many services provided in-house involve referral and follow-up by 303 program staff.

Although services are allowable for both client groups, most supportive services are reserved by 303s for enrollees in manpower service programs and their families. Provision of services to this category helps assure enrollee training completion and successful placement. Conference participants indicated that provision of supportive services was a key component to aiding their client population; however, they felt a need to provide such services to a larger portion of the second target population group--farmworkers remaining in agricultural employment. They said they have not been able to do so due to a lack of funds and administrative time. (A further discussion of this issue is provided in the segment of this chapter entitled "Problems of 303 Programs Functioning Under CETA Regulations.").

Health Services

The CETA regulations state the average cost per family for medical services should not exceed $250, with a maximum for a single family of $500. Conference participants were concerned about what they felt was a small amount of funds with which to service a large client population made up of both manpower trainees and other qualified non-manpower applicants eligible for such services. As a result, a majority of health service resources are set aside for manpower trainees and their families. Direct health services provided by various programs include health screening, physicals, and other primary health services. Most 303s contract health services directly through local physicians, hosptials, migrant health clinics, and other agencies. In other cases 303s reimburse private physicians for health services performed for farmworker clients. Several instances were cited of programs being asked to assist in payment of large farmworker hospital bills, sometimes exceeding $1,000.

Two highly notable programs discussed by conference participants are worthy of mention. One, in operation in the South, incorporates a complete health component into its residential training center. This health unit provides for pre-screening, a part-time doctor in residence, health insurance, and other health benefits. The other program, in the Midwest, contracts services through a local health maintenance organization

(HMO), purchasing five health insurance policies costing $31 each per month to provide health care through the HMO for up to five clients at one time. For an additional $2.58 per month per slot, dental services are also provided. Total service charge is $3,000 per year, which the program feels is far more efficient than contracting for individual services.

Housing Services

Not much comment was made by conference participants regarding housing for clients enrolled in training programs, with the exception of participants from the Midwest. The extreme housing shortage and cold weather in this area force 303 programs to house their trainees and trainee families during and after training in any available site. Participants expressed dissatisfaction over the CETA regulations' disallowance of funds to directly alleviate this situation. One project indicated a strong desire to buy or lease a half-way house, yet indicated that CETA regulations prohibit the purchasing of housing. Others were upset with the inability of programs to use CETA funds for paying a security deposit on a rental apartment or the first and last months' rent. (3) This latter point, it was said, hampers clients from enrolling in training programs if they can not pay a $100 security deposit for a place to live while they are in training. This statement is directly opposed to the stated CETA regulations regarding "residential support:"

> The grantee may offer such housing in several ways including but not limited to directly operating a residential facility with all necessary services or through the grantee's subsidizing all or part of the rental and utility costs for an enrolled family. (12,p.28983)

In some way, a misinterpretation of the regulations has occurred with alleged serious consequences.

Social Services

Social services--child care, emergency assistance and legal services--are allowable under the CETA 303 regulations covering supportive services and are engaged in by 303s through contracting with professional agents, by in-house staff and through referrals. Again, the principal complaint has been that the emphasis on services provided to manpower enrollees has resulted in a lack of funds for providing services to the total client population. At one conference, comparisons were made between social services offered under OEO III-B funding and those offered now under CETA 303, with the conclusion that needed social services have been either totally deleted or seriously hampered to the point of non-delivery. (7) At other conferences, participants indicated they felt under III-B the supportive (social) services component allowed a wider range of service to a greater number of eligible clients, with less restriction on the utilization of funds. Even in relation to manpower training, the comment was made that participants in manpower programs could not receive good manpower training without good supportive assistance. (3)

Child Care Services - Child care services are provided by most 303 programs in one form or another. These are primarily for the benefit of the children of manpower enrollees. A few programs operated their own day care centers, but most buy service slots from other agencies whose prime mission is to provide child care services. In the South, conference participants indicated there were few day care facilities in rural areas through which services could be contracted. At least one of the programs had been distributing funds to trainees to allow them to make their own day care arrangements, although the conference participant discussing this issue said his program had been told recently by DOL to stop this procedure. Participants at this conference also pointed to a lack of Head Start programs in rural areas as a problem. In the Northwest, one 303 program operates nine day care centers throughout one state, with a capacity to serve 450 children. This project was begun with OEO III-B funding and is being maintained through CETA funds. In another state in the Northwest, a state-operated day care project requested assistance from a CETA Balance of State operation. The request for assistance was denied on the grounds that a 303 agency within the state should provide such services for migrant children. Another problem noted at several conferences was the lack of care for children between the ages of seven and nine, unless there is a summer school project in the area. This age group is too old for day care service and too young to be employed in the fields.

Legal Assistance - Only few 303 programs have lawyers on their staff to handle legal problems which arise. Most of them coordinate services with a local legal agency. This area of social services was not pinpointed by conference participants as an unmet need.

Emergency Aid - Some emergency care is available through 303 programs, although conference participants indicated the abilities of those programs to help in this area is severely limited. Some programs complained of lack of funds, while one program in the South indicated it had the funds but could not help the majority of the area's population as they did not fall under CETA client guidelines.

Economic Development Services

In relation to economic development, participants commented only that unlike OEO III-B, CETA 303 makes no provisions for serious economic ventures. (1) (A further discussion of this subject is provided in the "Economic Development" section of this report.)

Assistance Links Maintained by 303 Programs

CETA 303's indicated they have received cooperative assistance from a variety of community sources including other federally funded agencies, state governments and agencies, local charity or religious organizations, and other community groups. One organization in the South utilized the services of the Tennessee Valley Authority, Army Corps of Engineers, the Soil Conservation Service, and the Daughters of the American Revolution to develop a specific economic development/manpower training program.

As indicated in a telephone survey of forty-three 303 grantees conducted by InterAmerica in 1975, many 303s maintain funding or "Set-aside Linkage Agreements" with CETA Title I-II and IV Prime Sponsors, committing resources, funds, or slots. Of those surveyed, 63% replied they had such agreements. Forty-nine percent of those surveyed said they received "direct funding from Prime Sponsors, and 71% of those receiving direct funding noted they had received funds from Balance of State Prime Sponsors. Value of all agreements was given as:

Number of Agreements	Type of Agreement	Value
74	Total agreements; value*	$6,093,545
29	Direct Funding agreements; value	$4,292,983
45	Set-aside Linkage Agreements; value*	$1,800,562

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*A majority of interviewees were in many cases unable to determine total CETA Prime Sponsor commitments. Their descriptions of features in the Set-aside Linkage Agreements (with a few exceptions) were unclear as to - (1) number of slots committed; or (2) the value of the agreement. Thus, the "value" of the 45 Linkage Agreements is the actual quoted figures and does not include the monetary value of agreements in which the interviewee was unable to quote a figure. If an estimate was called for, the Set-aside Agreements could easily be worth 4 million. (13, Appendix D, p.9)

PROBLEMS OF 303 PROGRAMS FUNCTIONING UNDER CETA REGULATIONS

Conference participants noted they were having a number of problems functioning at, what they felt was, a high impact level under CETA 303. Two primary problem areas were discussed. The first was a decrease in the number of clients eligible for services under 303 funding, as compared to previous OEO III-B funding. The second problem involves restrictions on funds with which to accomplish prescribed objectives under CETA.

Most CETA 303 grantees were previously funded under III-B, switching to DOL funding at the discontinuation of OEO III-B. Conference participants stressed throughout their discussion of provision of services under CETA that they felt able to serve a wider range of eligible clients under III-B, and that they feel restricted by eligibility criteria under CETA. One conference participant indicated his program had had to turn away half of the clients it had been allowed to serve while under III-B funding last year. (9) Another program representative said his program had plenty of funds but only a small eligible client population due to restrictions in CETA 303 Regulations. (6)

According to conferees, problems with funding arose from the manpower services orientation of CETA 303. In many cases 303 grantees received funding equal to or greater than funding received under III-B, but they felt this funding was too restrictive, focussing on provision of services in only one area - manpower. Funds are awarded by DOL on a competitive basis and 303 programs see a need to submit proposals for programs they think will be judged cost-effective by DOL. As a result, grantees submit plans which emphasize manpower services and services to the manpower-related segment of the client population.

Conference participants felt there is a definite need for manpower services but that the general supportive service area, which is equally important, is being slighted. "The options for supportive services...[are] allowable under CETA guidelines but...in fact are not allowable under CETA competitive proposal funding processes." (3) As one of the primary farmworker service programs in the nation, they felt it is necessary for CETA 303 to provide a wider range of services to a larger sector of the target population. The 303 programs want more flexibility to meet the particular and more immediate needs of the clients in their area. Additionally, they felt restricted by the allowance under CETA 303 of only 20% of a program's budget for "administrative services." These include administrative travel not directly benefiting a program participant and salary for personnel whose job performance does not provide direct benefit to enrollees, and programs felt this resulted in restrictive limitations. The sentiment was also reflected in the findings of the National Advisory Council on Economic Opportunity in its "Eighth Annual Report:"

> The Advisory Council was disturbed to learn that the Department of Labor has included outreach activities in its funding for administration, rather than funding them as separate functions. As a result of the de-emphasis of this important aspect of programming, many for whom these programs were designed will never participate in them. (14,p.108)

At two conferences, programs complained of a general funding cut which did or will cut their services considerably. In the Midwest, programs noted a cut in funds ranging from $5,000 to $200,000 for the upcoming year. In the Northwest, one program was reduced by about half under the CETA program, eliminating its outreach capability, severely truncating its administrative operations and reducing the actual service staff. (These funding cuts were justified by DOL based on population within each grantees' jurisdiction and other rationales.)

Programs also complained about the funding cycles maintained under CETA 303. The staggered funding dates maintained by DOL for Title I - II local Prime Sponsors make coordination between these agents and 303s difficult.

Related to restriction of funds, numerous programs noted that negotiated grants led to a reduction of outreach capacity. Other programs felt the area they were expected to cover under CETA had been greatly expanded without a proportionate funding increase. DOL based these decisions on a formula introduced to allocate funds proportionate to the population served. Programs indicated these reductions in proportionate funds per target client forced them to limit clients served and created ill feelings from the community. For example:

- In the South, many programs were contracted to provide services to an entire state, with most of their clients brought to the program rather than walking in themselves. The programs indicated they did not have the staff or travel funds to cover this area adequately, and one program often had to transport stranded clients to its central office before it could provide aid.

- In one state in the Northwest, a 303 program has only two outreach personnel to cover the western end of a state with a large migrant population.

- In the Midwest, one project has a five member staff which must serve 3,000 migrants in a two-county area alone.

Other problems associated with functioning under CETA 303 regulations, as noted by conference participants, included:

- ° The great amount of paperwork necessary to a program's operation.
- ° Difficulty with state government agencies which are suddenly showing interest in farmworkers now that DOL funds are available.
- ° Lack of coordination on an area wide basis, a factor which hampers delivery of services to migrants.

RATING OF CETA EFFECTIVENESS

As a general analysis of CETA 303 programs, conference participants were critical of the complete manpower emphasis, noting these programs hit few people they are supposed to serve and are not geared toward the unique needs of the migrant and seasonal farmworker population. (8) An estimate was given by one participant that due to educational limitations and other problems under CETA, manpower programs are only reaching five to six percent of their client population. (6) These comments regarding the manpower emphasis of CETA 303 and failure to reach a large segment of the target population reflect findings of the National Advisory Council on Economic Opportunity, as reported in the Council's "Eighth Annual Report."

> Grantee organizations explained to the council that their proposals to the Department of Labor focused on manpower projects and activities. They felt this was the only way they could qualify for continued funding, not because they believed manpower programs were the primary need of migrants and seasonal farmworkers. Thus the less skilled or more encumbered and those forced or choosing to remain in farmwork are neglected by the CETA programs. (14,p.106)

CETA 303 manpower programs were said by conference respondents to be designed for urban rather than rural clients and to treat the enrollee as an individual client, when in fact the client is the whole farmworker family, in need of comprehensive and flexible services. (7) The population's needs should dictate the programs' design, it was said, and manpower programs should be aimed at home base areas allowing supportive service programs to function primarily in user areas.

In responding to the question of whether the job training situation had gotten better or worse for farmworkers, questionnaire respondents generally indicated the situation has remained unchanged. Responses to the question of whether it was hard for farmworkers to receive job training also reflected a feeling of lack of change. Additionally, when asked which service programs farmworkers are aware of, manpower programs were mentioned only fourth most often. These responses coupled with responses given at the conferences reflect the view that manpower programs have had little impact on the farmworker population thus far. However, questionnaire respondents indicated a belief that manpower services were needed. This is shown in their high rating of usefulness of these services and their mentioning of manpower third most often as a service most beneficial to farmworkers. Their belief that manpower services are needed, but require improvement, was reflected in their mentioning manpower second most often as the kind of program most needed.

Again, these conclusions tie into the conclusions reached by the

National Advisory Council on Economic Opportunity:

> The programs for them [farmworkers] currently being operated by the Department of Labor, while fulfilling the mission of the CETA legislation, are not meeting the non-manpower needs of this group, and there is little prospect that DOL programs will change significantly in the near future.
>
> Federal programs designed to serve their needs must be comprehensive and should not subordinate efforts to improve their health, education, housing, and general well-being to job opportunity and employment programs. (14,p.111)

Conference participants suggested ways to improve 303 programs, other than those stated earlier. These included:

- Attract industry to rural areas through the use of government sponsored publicity. New industry would bring greater employment and training opportunities.
- Provide T & TA for 303 program staff and board members to produce a more effective program.
- Broaden the definition of eligible clients to allow for greater impact within a population area (Many migrant and seasonal farmworkers fall under the established OMB guidelines, but fail to qualify for services...under DOL guidelines. [3]).

Additionally, conference facilitators saw a need for T & TA in interpretation and clarification of CETA regulations to 303 programs. Through the conferences it was seen that some serious misunderstanding of essential regulations exist and result in limitation of services.

OTHER MANPOWER TRAINING PROGRAMS UNDER WHICH FARMWORKERS CAN RECEIVE SERVICES

Farmworkers are theoretically eligible for services under a number of manpower programs other than CETA 303. These include CETA Title I & II, Employment Service programs, the Rehabilitation Services Administration's vocational rehabilitation programs, and other programs. However, most of these do not keep records noting the number of farmworkers served, making complete documentation in this area impossible. (10) Through an analysis of available documentation, including hearings in Texas conducted the week of May 3, 1976, findings of a telephone survey conducted for this report and examination of the 1973 decision by U.S. District Court Judge Charles R. Richey (NAACP vs. Brennan, where employment services were found guilty of discriminating against minority farmworkers) (19,11,10,18), it is believed a safe assumption to conclude that few farmworkers, in proportion to the total population, are served by these manpower training programs. An extensive national survey would be necessary to verify the total accuracy of this assumption.

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CHAPTER 5

LEGISLATION

There are three types of federal legislation which affect farmworkers. The first is labor legislation which excludes them; the second is labor legislation which offers them less coverage than it offers industrial workers; and the third is legislation which focuses specifically on agricultural workers. There are also state laws which affect farmworkers.

LABOR LEGISLATION EXCLUDING FARMWORKERS

Two major labor laws which exclude farmworkers are the National Labor Relations Act and the Federal Unemployment Tax Act.

National Labor Relations Act

The National Labor Relations Act guarantees the right to unionization and collective bargaining. It is unlikely that farmworkers will be covered under the Act in the near future, although one state now has an act which gives this right to farmworkers.

Federal Unemployment Tax Act

This Act instituted the Unemployment Compensation program. It requires employers to pay a tax into a fund which supplies a source of income to people who lose their jobs through no fault of their own. Farmworkers are not covered by this program.

In late 1974, in response to a high and rising unemployment rate, an emergency bill was passed which temporarily extended the benefits of the program to 12 million people who previously had not been covered by the Unemployment Insurance program. Agricultural workers, domestics, and state and local government employees were covered by the special legislation until it expired on December 31, 1975.

Under these special provisions, the farm operator was considered the employer of the farmworker, and the farmworker had to apply for compensation in each state and qualify in the same manner as other workers in their respective states.

By December, 1975, a new bill had passed the House Ways and Means Committee which would extend coverage under the Act to agricultural workers. If this bill does become law, farmworkers would be covered if:

1) they worked on a farm which employed four or more workers for twenty weeks, or
2) the farm paid $5000 in wages in a calendar quarter.

For the purposes of coverage under this bill, the employer is the crew leader if the crew leader is either registered under the Farm Labor Contractor Registration Act or if the crew leader transports his or her own farm harvesting machinery, e.g., wheat harvestors. Otherwise, the employer is the farm operator.

It is unclear how many migrant and seasonal farmworkers would be covered under this law, since no data is kept regarding the type of farms on which they are employed. It has been said that a minority of farmworkers are covered under similar restrictions of the Fair Labor Standards Act.

LEGISLATION INCIDENTALLY COVERING FARMWORKERS

The second type of legislation affecting farmworkers is that which offers them some coverage but less than their industrial counterparts. Two of the most important of these laws are the Fair Labor Standards Act and Workmen's Compensation.

Fair Labor Standards Act

The Fair Labor Standards Act (FLSA) provides for minimum wages and proscribes child labor. Until it was amended in 1966, farmworkers were exempt from the minimum wage provisions. The limited minimum wage coverage that farmworkers gained in 1966 applies if a farmworker:

1) Worked for an employer who used more than 500 workdays of farm labor in any quarter of the preceding year, and

2) Is not a local hand harvester who did piece work for less than thirteen weeks or is not a worker in timber and tobacco.

In addition, time and a half overtime pay provisions are not applicable in agriculture. The 500 workday provision excludes most farmworkers from the minimum wage provisions. (7,p.16) Even if a farmworker does qualify for the minimum wage, it will be lower than that of industrial workers. (See Table 8)(2,p.62)

TABLE 8

MINIMUM WAGE FOR AGRICULTURE AND NON-AGRICULTURE 1974-1976

Effective Date	Minimum Wage	
	Agriculture	Non-Agriculture
5/1/1974	$1.60	$2.00
1/1/1975	$1.80	$2.10
1/1/1976	$2.00	$2.30

As of 1972, 15 states had minimum wage provisions which cover farmworkers, either by law or through provisions for wages for women. (12,p.12)

The child labor provisions of the Act are also less restrictive for agricultural work than for any other type of work. Whereas children under the age of 16 are prohibited from working in industry, the employment of children aged 12-16 is permitted in agriculture under certain conditions. The child labor provisions do not apply in agriculture if an employee is:

1) 14 years of age or older, or

2) 12 or 13 years old, and is employed with the consent of his or her parents or a person standing in place of the parent, or is employed on the same farm as the parent or person in place of the parent, or

3) less than 12 years of age, and is employed on the parent's farm, or is employed with their parent's consent on a farm not covered by the monetary provisions of the Act. (9,p.3)

Under these provisions, many migrant and seasonal agricultural farmworking families can legally have their children working with them. Since the children are on the same farm as their parents, the only restriction applying to a migrant or seasonal child is that those under 12 years old may not legally work on a farm covered by the minimum wage provisions of the Act. This standard can be further restricted by state law.

Some states have laws prohibiting child labor when school is in session if the child falls under compulsory school attendance laws. As of 1972, 29 states had such provisions for when school is in session, and 13 states had child labor provisions which apply when school is not in session. (13,p.13)

In 1975, an attempt was made to amend the Fair Labor Standards Act to allow children to work on covered farms under certain conditions. Testimony at open hearings on the bill recounted the hazards of child labor. The dangers of accidents and pesticide poisoning and the lack of opportunity to continue education without interruption were cited as major factors for not allowing children to work in the fields. While some of those testifying tried to argue the economic necessity of employing children, it was pointed out that there was sufficient adult labor to harvest the crops (though of course, it is more expensive than child labor). The "necessity" of child labor is a perception of farmworkers rather than the growers; migrant and seasonal agricultural children work to supplement low family incomes. In any event, the bill to amend the Act was defeated, and the 1974 standards apply.

Workmen's Compensation

States determine eligiblity under the Workmen's Compensation laws. Traditionally, farm occupations were excluded on the basis that they were non-mechanized and non-hazardous. Of course, this is no longer true, although many states still exclude farmworkers from benefits. This is a program to assure that benefits are paid promptly to workers injured on the job and to protect employers from damage suits.

Twenty-one states and Puerto Rico include some coverage of agricultural workers under Workmens Compensation statutes, though only fourteen of these states treat farmworkers the same as other workers. Twenty three states provide for voluntary coverage on the part of the employer. Three states do not discuss the subject, and two states specifically prohibit coverage. (13,p.12)

Thus, in the majority of states, injured farmworkers do not have an income to support a family while they are disabled, nor do they receive any of the other benefits which accrue through Workmen's Compensation such as paid medical benefits, rehabilitation services, or benefits to the family in case of death.

LEGISLATION SPECIFICALLY CONCERNING FARMWORKERS

The third type of federal legislation, that which specifically is about farmworkers, is of two types. The first type discussed is legislation which authorizes programs to assist farmworkers. The second type authorizes administrative actions designed to safeguard farmworkers.

Wagner-Peyser Act

This act authorizes the U.S. Employment Service to maintain a farm placement program through state Employment Service offices and to set standards for the use of this assistance.

The program, the Rural Manpower Service, is essentially a referral service. Farmers notify the Employment Service of the number of workers they expect to hire, wages to be paid, and the number of days of labor expected. The Employment Service uses these job orders to refer farmworkers seeking assistance to the participating farmers.

In May 1973, the Federal District Court, in response to a lawsuit

(NAACP v. Brennan), found that this service discriminated against minority farmworkers on the basis of race, national origin, sex, and age, and that the service had denied farmworkers the full range of benefits offered by the Employment Service. Specifically, the Court found that the Service:

- ° Denied minority farmworkers the full range of employment services including testing, counselling, and job training and upgrading.
- ° Discriminated on the basis of race, sex, national origin, and age in recruiting and referring farmworkers for local, intrastate and interstate employment.
- ° Provided only substandard placement services for day-haul workers and substandard facilities to minority farmworkers.
- ° Processed interstate clearance orders that allowed employers to predesignate farmworkers by race, national origin, sex, and age.
- ° Processed misleading, inaccurate, and incomplete job orders.
- ° Referred migrant farmworkers to:
  - -- employers who violated minimum wage and child labor laws
  - -- employers who failed to make Social Security payments to the workers accounts
  - -- jobs where the living and working conditions violated housing, health and sanitation laws
  - -- segregated housing
  - -- unlicensed crewleaders or to crewleaders who operated illegally.
- ° Failed to enforce the federal Farm Labor Contractor Registration Act.

- Failed to assist federal officials charged with enforcing the Immigration and Naturalization Act and failed to follow their own regulations and directives that have been enacted to protect job opportunities, wages and working conditions of domestic farmworkers.
- Had been unresponsive to farmworkers complaints.

The Department of Labor was ordered to comply with a "Thirteen Point Plan" which was aimed at correcting these errors. After one year, an order was made by Judge Richey which, in addition to the Thirteen Point Plan, required the Department of Labor to:

- Require the Employment Service offices to provide farmworkers the whole range of benefits qualitatively equivalent and quantitatively proportionate to those provided non-farmworkers.
- Refer law violations to enforcement officials.
- Hire bilingual staff for Employment Service offices where appropriate, and hire staff from the farmworker community.
- Contact farmworkers to ascertain employment problems and to counsel them on the use of and availability of manpower services.
- Insure that job orders are firm, nondiscriminatory offers disclosing conditions of employment, and have employer verification that the job order is a substantiated offer of employment.
- Make random field checks to assure that jobs are as stated in the job order and in compliance with state and federal law.

The Department of Labor and the Plaintiffs in the case joined each other on a Special Review Committee which is to oversee the implementation of the order.

Comprehensive Employment and Training Act

Section 303 of the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA) authorizes a program for both farmworkers who wish to remain in agriculture and for farmworkers who wish to find alternative employment.

Some programs emphasize manpower training and placement by upgrading farmworkers' skills through in-class training programs, on-the-job training, and work experience. These services are available to those farmworkers who wish to get out of agriculture. Supportive services such as child care, emergency assistance, nutritional and medical assistance, etc., can be provided to all farmworkers. (For a full description of these programs, see Chapter 4 on CETA.)

Some programs exphasize school, and pay for tuition and assist migrant farmworker adolescents to finish high school and enroll in higher education institutions. The High School Equivalency Program (HEP) and the College Assistance Migrant Program (CAMP) are such programs. They were originated and funded through OEO and were transferred to the Department of Labor when the other III-B grantees were transferred.

The HEP programs have two goals. The first is to see that the students enrolled receive a General Equivalency Diploma. This is an intermediate goal, but it is a prerequisite for the second and ultimate goal of placing the student in college, advanced vocational education, or directly on the job.

The CAMP programs are designed to assist the farmworker student through college. In addition to providing counseling and tutoring, the program provides financial assistance to the student. Funding for CAMP programs goes directly to the sponsoring colleges and universities. The CAMP project pays up to 50% of the financial assistance package of a student for the first year, with the sponsoring institution picking up the entire cost of the program for the remaining years. Priority in recruitment is given to HEP graduates.

The Department of Labor has traditionally reserved funds for the programs although after fiscal year 1976, these programs will have to compete for funding along with the other grantees.

Elementary and Secondary Education Act

Title I of the ESEA provides for special education programs for the children of migrant agricultural workers and the children of migratory fishermen. Each state submits a plan including a cost estimate for the migrant program to the Office of Education. All states receive an allotment for Title I migrant programs with each year's allotment based on the number of migrant children in a state and the state's per pupil expenditures.

ESEA Title I monies also fund the Migrant Student Record Transfer System. This project is designed to track migrant students through the stream and provide their teachers with both academic and health information. The information is kept on a central computer in Little Rock, Arkansas.

Public Health Act

Migrant Health projects are authorized by the Public Health Act, which is administered by the Department of Health, Education and Welfare. Grants are made to public and other non-profit organizations to run migrant health programs. The services offered by these projects range from diagnostic and theraputic services, to preventive care, to certain dental care, to specialty and mobile clinics. Funding for the Migrant Health program was decreased by 20% in fiscal year 1976; the fiscal year 1977 budget has not yet been finally approved.

Housing Act of 1949

The Housing Act of 1949, as amended, authorizes the Farmers Home Administration to run one program which relates specifically to meeting farmworkers' needs, although the program actually makes loans or grants directly to farmers. The money can be used to build or maintain temporary labor camps which often house farmworkers.

Another program is a home ownership program called Self-Help Housing. Through this program, low income people help build their own homes, thus reducing the cost of acquiring a home and enabling low income people to own their own homes.

Rehabilitation Act of 1973

Under Section 304(c) of the Amendments to the Rehabilitation Act of 1973, the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare is authorized to pay 90% of the cost of projects and/or demonstrations for the provision of vocational services to migrant and seasonal farmworkers (as defined by the Department of Labor) and to their families.

Eight projects have been initiated under this Act in six HEW regions. They are essentially outreach projects to locate migrants, explain the benefits of the Vocational Rehabilitation program, and to enroll migrant and seasonal farmworkers in the programs. The programs are in operation in New York, New Jersey, Florida, Wisconsin, Texas, Idaho, Oregon, and California. (1,p.7)

Social Security Act

A farmworker is covered by the Old Age, Survivors, and Disability Insurance program under the Social Security Act if the worker:

1) Received cash wages of at least $150.00 from one employer during a year, or

2) Worked for one employer 20 days or more for cash wages computed on a time rather than a piece rate basis.

Farm crew leaders who themselves pay the workers are deemed to be employers if there is no agreement to the contrary. As employers, they are responsible for payment of the Social Security taxes.

The following programs provide administrative relief to migrants and/or seasonal farmworkers. That is, under these laws an administrative action such as registration, certification or regulation is required by law with the intent of safeguarding farmworkers or their rights.

The Farm Labor Contractor Registration Act

In December 1974, the Farm Labor Contractor Registration Act of 1963 was amended, adding further safeguards for farmworkers who work for a farm labor contractor (crew leader). The new provisions require a farm labor contractor to:

- ° Clearly inform workers when recruiting them in writing and in a language in which they are fluent of all living and working conditions including:
  - -- location of work site
  - -- crops to be worked
  - -- wages
  - -- housing facilities
  - -- transportation & insurance
  - -- period of employment
  - -- charges to be made for the services provided
  - -- the existence of any labor dispute at the work place
  - -- any kickback arrangement between the farm labor contractor and local commercial or retail merchants who deal with the workers.
- ° Keep payroll records and provide each worker with a statement of earnings, withholding, and reasons for withholding if the farm labor contractor is responsible for paying wages.
- ° Clearly post the conditions of employment in a prominent place and notify workers of any changes in such conditions upon arrival at a given place of employment.
- ° Clearly post the terms and conditions of occupancy of housing if it is owned or controlled by the farm labor contractor.

For purposes of the act, a farm labor contractor is a person who, for a fee, either for himself or herself, or on behalf of another person, recruits, solicits, hires, furnishes, or transports migrant workers, regardless of numbers, for agricultural employment, whether within a state or across state lines. Those persons are exempted who recruit and furnish migrant workers for employers within a 25 mile intrastate radius of the contractor's permanent place of residence if the contractor works less than 13 weeks during any one calendar year. An employee's certificate is required for any person who works for a farm labor contractor and who acts in behalf of a farm labor contractor.

A farm labor contractor is forbidden to hire an illegal alien knowingly, and farm operators are forbidden to employ a contractor until the operator determines that the contractor has a valid registration certificate.

Between December 1974 and September 1975, the Department of Labor received 4,478 applications for farm labor contractor certificates or certificates as employees of a farm labor contractor. Of this number 3,718 were issued, with about 50% of these being renewals. Seventy-two percent of the certificates issued were issued in the Dallas (38%) and the Atlanta (34%) regions. Fifty seven percent of the complaints received regarding violations of FLCRA originated in the Atlanta region, and twenty percent originated in the Dallas region, apparently indicating more severe problems in these areas with the crew system. In addition, forty-one percent of the illegal alien work force that was uncovered through FLCRA investigations was in the Atlanta region (14).

The Act is administered through the Wage and Hour Division of the Employment Standards Administration of the Department of Labor. The Division has about 1000 Compliance Officers throughout the nation who make regular field investigations to insure compliance with the many employment standards for which the division is responsible. If a FLCRA violation is found during one of these regular investigations, or if a complaint is made, a special investigation is carried out, and if a violation is found to exist, official sanction is taken against the contractor or employer.

Immigration and Naturalization Act

The Immigration and Naturalization Act affect farmworkers in three ways. First, the Act provides for the immigration of the "Green Carder," so called because of the color of the visa which she or he has. A green Carder is permitted to enter the United States as a resident alien, although many of them maintain their residence in Mexico and commute daily or seasonally to work in the United States. The Immigration and Naturalization Service (INS) does not attempt to maintain an accurate count of the number of commuters, much less the number of commuters who work in agriculturs. (3,p.20-21).

The immigration laws were not intended as a source of cheap labor for American agriculture, but an alien who lives in a country where the cost of living is lower can get by on wages which are unacceptable to the America worker. Although it is illegal to employ a Green Carder as a strikebreaker, it is not difficult to circumvent this proscription, and many feel that it has been done.

An illegal alien apprehended by the INS is deported to his or her country of origin. Since the end of the Bracero program in 1964, the number of illegal aliens coming from Mexico has increased dramatically. The number of illegal aliens located by the INS jumped from 42,000 in 1964 to 710,000 in 1974. Of this number, approximately 20% were seeking agriculturally oriented work when apprehended. (3,p.22). Thus, at least 142,000 illegal aliens were competing for agricultural jobs during 1974.

In addition to this combination of commuters and illegal aliens who compete with domestic agricultural workers, the Immigration Act provides for the certification and legal temporary immigration of aliens to work specifically in agriculture. The law was written to protect the interests of domestic workers; the Department of Labor is supposed to grant certification only if it is determined that there is an insufficient number of American workers to take the jobs, and if the certification will not adversely affect wages and working conditions of similarly employed American workers. Apparently, these safeguards have not been affective. According to a special review of the Rural Manpower Service, wages are lower in areas that use the foreign workers, and alien workers are employed in areas with high unemployement levels. (10,p.342-354)

Interstate Commerce Act

Under this Act, the Department of Transportation has issued regulations for the transport safety of migrant workers if they travel more than 75 miles. These laws are essentially passenger safety, passenger comfort, and vehicle safety laws.

Williams-Steiger Act of 1970

This Act created the Occupational Safety and Health Administration (OSHA) whose primary association to migrant and seasonal farmworkers has been with respect to housing. OSHA has promulgated standards for labor camp housing and inspects camps. OSHA may delegate its authority for inspecting housing to states, provided that the state code is at least as stringent as the OSHA standards. Their function, and issues concerning enforcement of standards, is discussed in detail in the chapter of housing.

STATE LAWS

State laws regarding migrant and seasonal farmworkers are difficult to classify. Some state laws apply to farmworkers specifically; others apply only because they do not exclude farmworkers. On some subjects the law is silent. If states do have laws applying to farmworkers, they are likely to revolve around the following topics: minimum wage, collection of wages, hours, child labor, working conditions, labor contractors, unionization, workmen's compensation, unemployment compensation, transportation, and employee housing. A few general statements can be made about the above topics, but for detailed information, the reader is referred to Federal and State Statutes Relating to Farmworkers, a Compilation.* This compilation is becoming outdated, covering laws only up to 1972. An update of this report may be issued by the U.S. House of Representatives Committee on Education and Labor in the spring of 1976.

If there are both state and national laws about a subject, the more stringent law applies. Minimum wage, child labor, labor contractors, transportation, and employee housing are all covered to some extent by national law. Workmen's compensation and unemployment compensation have been discussed as they apply to farmworkers nationally; in effect, if farmworkers get coverage under these two programs, it is through the state law rather than through national law.

Hours, collection of wages, and unionization are the sole province of the state, as there is no national law on these topics with respect to farmworkers. State laws about maximum hours have usually applied to women and minors, but would be extended to cover men under equal employment laws. Collection of wages laws usually refer to laws which stipulate how often a worker must be paid. Only one state, California, has officially sanctioned farmworker unionization with an agricultural labor relations act similar to the National Labor Act.

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*Report printed by the U.S. Senate Committee on Labor & Public Welfare, December, 1972.

According to the Migrant Legal Action Program newsletter, "Earthbond," the California law provides for the following:

- ° A five person agricultural relations board
- ° Certification of unions through secret ballot elections
- ° Contracts between certified union and growers only
- ° Petition for election by a majority of workers
- ° Elections within seven days, except during strikes when they must be held within 48 hours
- ° Decertification of a union through worker election
- ° Permission for economic strikers to vote in elections
- ° Definition of unfair labor practices. (4)

The bill is undoubtedly in response to the United Farm Workers, AFL-CIO and the Teamsters Union efforts to organize agricultural workers in California. The passage of the bill included some provisions which the UFW had hoped for, including: elections at peak season when 50% of the workforce is present, permission to conduct consumer boycotts and to strike at harvest time, and classification of farmworkers as one industrial unit. The Teamsters contracts which were in effect at the time of the passage of the law remained in effect and could not be automatically terminated.

Elections have been held since the law became effective on August 29, 1975. By the end of September 1975, allegations of more than 200 unfair labor practices and/or objections to election procedures had been filed with the California Agricultural Labor Relations Board. About 30% of the elections held by then were challenged, usually for election irregularities such as intimidation of workers, early closing of the polls, and coercion of workers by crew leaders. (8,p.A1) One person has predicted that most board decisions will be litigated to establish precedents, but the law has created a framework on which to build.

OTHER MAJOR LEGISLATION AND SOCIAL PROGRAMS UNDER WHICH FARMWORKERS COULD RECEIVE BENEFITS

Several programs targeted for the general population are theoretically available to farmworkers, although little documentation is available on the actual number of farmworkers enrolled. In a 1973 study by Interstate Research Associates, of 209 representatively selected migrant households, 19% knew of programs that could have been of use but did not contact the program. (2) Table 9, from this study, compares awareness, application, and receipt of services information obtained from this sample. Elsewhere in this report, documentation is provided concerning the inability of farmworkers to receive many of these services due to linguistic, mobility, and social factors unique to their situation.

The following provides information regarding major social welfare programs targeted for the general population for which farmworkers, as community residents are eligible. Some discussion of farmworker utilization of services is also provided where such data is available.

TABLE 9

AWARENESS OF, APPLICATION FOR, AND RECEIPT OF PUBLIC SERVICES BY FARMWORKERS

Kind of Service	Percent aware of services	% of those aware who applied for services	% of applicants who received services
USDA Food Stamps	97	79	96
Social Security	76	34	38
Surplus Food Commodities	71	64	100
Union/Community Organizations of, by and for farmworkers	68	19	75
Unemployment Compensation	63	42	9
Employment of job placement	57	53	56
Low-cost housing, including public housing	57	18	0
Job training	53	19	*
Aid to the blind, or aid to the disabled, including ATD	53	13	*
OEO Community Action Agencies and related programs	50	40	*
Workman's compensation	47	3	*
Aid to Families with Dependent Children: AFDC, ADC, AFDC-U	43	23	*

Kind of Service	Percent aware of services	% of those aware who applied for services	% of applicants who received services
Programs for pensions or disability benefits paid by employers or unions	39	17	*
Veterans Administration	37	9	*
Legal aid societies and programs	32	40	*
State programs for sickness and temporary disability benefits	32	10	*
Programs for pensions or disability benefits for government employees	32	10	*
Railroad retirement and disability benefits	3	0	0
Vocational rehabilitation	0	0	0

*Base too small to estimate

Source: Interstate Research Associates, Handicapped Migrant Farm Workers (Contracted by the U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare. Washington, D.C.) December, 1974, pgs. 61-62.

Public Law 94-63 Public Health Services Act

Title II-Family Planning Programs - These programs are funded by the various DHEW Regional offices through the state governments. They can provide (depending upon their funding status) the following scope of services: 1) medical services consisting of physical examinations, contraceptive technology, laboratory tests, infertility services, complication back-up, sterilization procedures, treatment of minor infections, and nutritional services; 2) educational services consisting of patient education; and, 3) social services consisting of referral and counseling.

Title III-Community Mental Health Centers - These centers depending on their level of funding can or do provide the following range of services: diagnostic, treatment (medical and/or counseling), liaison, and follow-up services. Services can be provided from the following delivery units: in patient care facilities, or emergency services facilities. Most programs are operated in urban areas, away from farmworker populations.

Title V-Community Health Centers - These centers under the law can provided the following scope of services: Outpatient care consisting of diagnostic, treatment, and follow-up services, diagnostic laboratory and radiological services, preventive health services, emergency medical services, transportation services, preventive dental services, and supplemental health services consisting of hospital, home health, dental, vision, pharmaceutical, nutrition education, and social services. In the past, most programs were operated in urban areas, although in recent years some Migrant Health Programs have acquired funding from this source.

Title VIX-Medicaid - The Title XIX Program of the Social Security Act is a tax-funded State-Federal program of cash and medical assistance to families with dependent children, the elderly, the blind, disabled, and medically indigent. By agreeing to pay for a minimum set of medical and social services to persons eligible for and enrolled in Title XIX programs, the state receives federal funds on a matching grant basis to supplement its own funds spent to provide services.

As noted in the "Health" chapter of this report, many migrants are unable to receive this program due to residency and documentation requirements.

Early and Periodic Screening, Diagnosis and Treatment (EPSDT) - EPSDT for individuals under age 21 is part of the medicaid program. Medicaid, authorized by Title XIX of the Social Security Act, is a grant-in-aid program under which the federal government reimburses costs incurred by states in providing medical care to persons who cannot afford such care. EPSDT is the largest federal program providing health care to children.

Program regulations require screening to include a health and developmental history, an assessment of physical growth, developmental assessment, inspection for obvious physical defects including ear, nose, mouth, throat, teeth, and gums, and screening for tests of cardiac abnormalities, diabetes, and other diseases.

The state agency program operator must provide for diagnositc services for individuals found through the screening process to be in need of further diagnostic study. The state must also provide any treatment within the amount, duration, and scope of its state plan, needed by an individual who has received screening or diagnostic services through this program.

Special Supplemental Feeding Program for Women, Infants, and Children (WIC) - Each state is funded by USDA for a specified amount based on a plan or proposal submitted by the state. The state in turn determines the number of slots for individuals to be enrolled in the program. Any public or local private non-profit health program may be qualified or certified by the state to administer an agreed upon number of slots. Each person enrolled in WIC or on a waiting list has been determined by an employee of the grantee to be in need both nutritionally and financially.

The person enrolled in the WIC program receives the following food items: milk, eggs, baby food, and other items, as well as nutritional counseling.

Community Services Act of 1974, Community Action Agencies (CAA) - Community Action Agencies are adapted from Community Action Programs funded under legislation authorizing the Office of Economic Opportunity. Their purpose is to realize the basic goal of enabling low-income individuals to attain the skills, knowledge, motivations and opportunities needed for them to become fully self-sufficient. CAAs are designed to coordinate related agency efforts, community action program should at least plan systematically for and evaluate the program, cooperate with related agencies to improve efforts; initiate and sponsor projects responsive to needs of the poor which are not otherwise being met, establish effective procedures by which the poor and area residents will be able to influence the character of programs affecting their interest, and join with and encourage business, labor and other groups to undertake activities in support of the CAA. CAAs located in the home base area offer migrant and seasonal farmworkers, as local residents, the opportunity to participate in programs and services. CAAs located in the stream do not emphasize services to non-residents of the area. As a general rule, documentation of exact number of farmworkers served is not kept by CAAs.

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CHAPTER 6

HEALTH

HEALTH STATUS OF FARMWORKERS

Farmworkers are considered to have the poorest physical and mental health of any group in the United States. (10,p.36,42) A number of studies have documented farmworkers' poor health conditions in comparison with the national average.

Mortality

The average lifespan of a farmworker is 49 years, 20 years below the national average. (33,p.16) "The death rate from influenza and pneumonia is 200% higher than the national rate." (35,p.154) "Mortality rates for TB and other infectious diseases among migrants are two and one-half times the national rate." (28,p.123)

Farmworker children fare particularly badly with an infant mortality rate of 63 per 1,000 live births, compared to a national rate of 20 per 1,000 per live births. (10,p.36) Prenatal mortality, as reflected in a California study, is also abnormally high at 28% for "Spanish farm workers" versus a rate of 19% for "white professional, administrative and technical workers." (10,p.37) One illness chosen in the California study to exemplify the high death rate of farmworker children was deaths caused by diarrhea, "a category chosen because of presumed preventability." The study showed that "farm worker children had seven times the expected mortality" in this category when compared with the national average. (10,p.38)

Basic Health

When compared with national figures, farmworkers basic health is far below average. Migrant births occur outside of hospitals at nine times the national rate (18.1% compared to 2.4%). Hospitalization of farmworkers for accidents is 50% higher than the national rate. (28,p.123)

A study of 300 Mexican-American, pre-school children of farmworkers revealed the following:

- "Fifty-five were found to have vitamin A deficiency.
- Thirty-six showed evidence of reduced food (caloric) intake.
- Other findings were decreased height attainment, decreased weight, decreased head circumference, liver enlargement and a decreased serum protein." (10,p.37)

Another California survey of farmworker children showed that all those studied between the ages of six and 25 months were anemic, half of those between the ages of four and eight were anemic, and 80% of all children studied were "iron-depleted." (10,p.38)

The most commonly seen maladies among farmworkers are malnutrition, hypertension, diabetes, venereal disease, gastrointestinal and respiratory problems, as documented by numerous studies and through information presented by conference participants. (2;5;6;10,p.41-42;13,p.12;16,p.53;17,p.47;
22,p.160,161;24,p.22;26,p.20;33,p.16;
34,p.10,63,64,70;35,p.156)

Malnutrition, defined as a recurrent farmworker health problem, is seen as a "major contributing cause" for other health problems. "Farmworker diets lack vitamins A, B, C, and the milk and cheese group. This vitamin shortage causes wounds and injuries to heal slowly, bones to become brittle, and tooth decay, rickets, scurvy, pellagra and frequent gastro-intestinal problems to occur," and lowers resistance to other diseases present in children. Malnutrition affects growth and development "physically, mentally and emotionally." (33,p.16) Malnutrition is caused by both lack of proper foods and lack of proper food preparation, the latter aspect due both to a lack of knowledge and a lack of adequate cooking and storage facilities. (13,p.12)

Diseases Endemic to Farmworkers - Diseases which are considered cured by the national population are present among farmworkers. For example, in Congressional testimony, Raymond M. Wheeler, M.D., stated, "We saw rickets, a disorder thought to be nearly abolished in this country." (35,p.156) According to the testimony of Gordon Harper, M.D., "This very month [July, 1970] when the rest of the country has been congratulating itself on the fact that no one died last year from poliomyelitis, the most serious of the enteric viral infections, three deaths from polio have occurred in South Texas." (18,p.178)

Tuberculosis, a disease considered well under control nationally, is highly prevalent among farmworkers. Chronic illness is also a problem. One estimate given for the state of Indiana notes "nearly four out of ten migrants display symptoms of chronic illness." (19,p.37) An outbreak reported in Florida in 1973 recorded 225 probable or confirmed cases and was "the largest reported outbreak of typhoid fever in the United States since 1939." (10,p.39)

Dental Health - Dental problems are a critical health area for farmworkers. Spot examinations reveal a tremendous percentage of farmworkers in need of some dental care. One study revealed dental problems in every individual examined. (22,p.162) Another study in Indiana of migrant children showed 76% of all children tested in need of dental care. A survey in Florida of farmworkers of various age groups revealed the mean number of decayed teeth per farmworker as 6.8. (See Table 10) The mean number of filled teeth, however, was less than one. Additionally, the survey revealed that the mean number of missing teeth increased dramatically with age.

Other recurrent dental problems include pyorrhea, alveolaris and periodontal and root canal disease. (22,p.162) Farmworkers view dental problems only in terms of emergencies. A Florida study stated, "self report of usage of dental facilities shows that just about the only problem that will bring a...[study respondent] farmworker to a dentist is one that requires extraction of a tooth." (34,p.65)

Compared to a national sample of persons with incomes under $2,000, one study showed farmworkers made fewer than one-third as many dental visits, though when a farmworker did go to a dentist, he or she was almost five times as likely to have a tooth extracted. (See Table 11)

TABLE 10

MEAN NUMBER OF DECAYED, MISSING, AND FILLED TEETH BY AGE OF FARMWORKER

Age Group	Number Responding	Mean Number of Teeth Per Farmworker		
		Decayed	Missing	Filled
18 - 24	11	7.54	0.90	0.36
25 - 34	19	7.68	5.05	1.42
35 - 44	26	7.88	6.96	0.92
45 - 54	38	6.47	7.02	0.61
55 - 64	19	4.12	9.18	0.50
64+	2	5.50	12.50	0.00
TOTAL	115	6.76	6.47	0.77

Source: The University of Florida, *The Health and Health Care Needs of Migrant Agricultural Workers in Three North Florida Counties*, April, 1975, p. 134.

TABLE 11

COMPARISON OF USE OF DENTAL CARE FACILITIES BY FARMWORKERS AND NATIONAL SAMPLE OF LOW-INCOME PERSONS OVER A ONE YEAR PERIOD

USAGE	SAMPLE OF FARMWORKERS	PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF PERSONS WITH INCOMES UNDER $2,000
Percent of Sample Who Visited Dentist Past Year	13.3	42.0
Percent of Those Seeing a Dentist Who Had Tooth Extracted	74.1	15.0

Source: The University of Florida, The Health and Health Care Needs of Migrant Agricultural Workers in Three Rural North Florida Counties. April, 1975, p.60.

Mental Health - Mental illness is becoming recognized as a major health problem among farmworkers. One Florida study discovered that 47% of a sample of farmworkers identified themselves as having emotional problems, using indicators such as:" 'a personal history of nervous or emotional problems including suicide,' 'bothered by nervousness,' or 'feeling low and hopeless.' " (34,p.78)

Two other studies--Migrant Farm Workers in the State of Washington and a study described by Dr. Harry S. Lipscomb in Congressional testimony, also specified mental illness as a prevalent problem.

Disabilities - Farmworkers also suffer a larger number of disabilities than the national average, over one in six for farmworkers compared to one in ten in large metropolitan areas. (33,p.16) In a study of disabled farmworkers conducted by Interstate Research Associates (IRA) in 1974, 45% of the responding farmworker households had a disabled member. Of those indicating disabilities, 14% indicated this was related to the kind of work they perform. However, that study concluded "it is easy to speculate that work was responsible for considerably more than the 14% of conditions attributed to work by respondents," particularly since muscular-skeletal and nervous system disorders "suggest the cumulative effects of prolonged, demanding manual labor." (20,p.51) A study comparing farmworkers with a random national sample documented the greater severity of disabilities among farmworkers in terms of both those disabilities impairing work and those impairing the ability to live independently. (See Table 12)

TABLE 12

COMPARISON OF DISABILITY SEVERITY IN SAMPLES OF SEASONAL AGRICULTURAL WORKERS AND A NATIONAL WORKERS SAMPLE

Severity	Percent of Sample	
	Seasonal Agricultural	United States
Work Ability		
(a) No limitation	69	89.4
(b) Limited in work roles and activities (eg, experiencing difficulty at work or is temporarily unemployed due to a partial disability)	23	4.4
(c) Totally disabled (eg, never been employed, or has had to stop work by reason of disability)	8	6.3
Total Sample	100	100.1
Ability to Live Independently		
(a) No limitation	69	88.4
(b) Limited but independent	7	6.3
(c) Mobility assistance needed (eg, needs help going outdoors, shopping, or doing housework)	14	3.5
(d) Personal assistance needed (eg, needs someone else to care for them on a daily or weekly basis)	9	1.8
Total Sample	99	100.0

Source: Interstate Research Associates, Handicapped Migrant Farmworkers, Washington, D.C., December, 1974, p. 51.

Present Health Condition of Farmworkers - The health conditions described above "have remained practically unchanged over the last two or three decades." (10,p.43) Most conference participants noted no worsening or improvement of the health situation of the farmworkers who passed through their clinics over the past several years. (5)

However, one participant from the Northeast Region said she had observed an increase in acute health problems, due to the increase and new variety of migratory workers passing through her area. For example, she found a 20 year old Mexican-American man with TB in one lung, one kidney, and his left leg. Through testing the fellow crew members of this man, she found 60 persons who had a positive reaction to TB tests and had to have x-rays. Another crew of black members yielded four epileptics and two workers with heart problems. (4)

Causes of Poor Farmworker Health

Farmworker health problems are usually attributable to occupational related conditions and living conditions. Accidents, pesticides, and other work-related hazards are responsible for many of the health ailments associated with this population. Farmwork itself has been described as "an occupation which is among the most hazardous in American society." (15,p.6) "The accident rate among migrant farmworkers is 300% [greater than] the national rate." (35,p.154)

Illness and death from exposure to pesticides were well documented in the 1969 Hearings before the House Subcommittee on Migratory Labor on Pesticides and the Farmworker, and they are still prevalent today. Citing

Food and Drug Administration figures, one annual report on migrants stated, "Some 800 to 1,000 field workers are killed and 80,000 are injured by pesticides annually." (17,p.49) (The figures quoted here should be considered an estimate of the true figures. The number of persons killed or injured due to pesticides is difficult to document. Many physicians may not recognize or be able to document illness due to pesticide exposure as "the symptoms of pesticide poisoning can be mistaken for a variety of other problems." [23,p.152]) A study of Handicapped Migrant Workers performed by IRA in 1974, noted skin problems as the most frequently cited cause of disability which "is suggestive in light of the report of known exposure to agricultural chemicals by 44% of a larger subgroup of respondents." "When asked if they [respondents] thought such chemicals had caused an illness or health problem in the family, 29% said 'yes,' and an additional 19% said they weren't sure." (20,p.51) They identified a number of ailments as resulting from exposure of family members to pesticides: skin problems, visual problems, respiratory difficulties, digestive problems, swelling and other allergic reactions.

Banning of DDT has forced farmers to turn to other chemicals, some of which are more dangerous than DDT. For example, parametathione is highly dangerous when coupled with certain weather conditions. Other pesticides are found to be at their peak of potency three weeks after spraying. The old safety policy of keeping farmworkers out of the fields until two weeks after spraying now places them in fields when sprayed chemicals are most dangerous. Today, pesticide poisoning still seems to be present but the emphasis on its control has lessened. The subject was mentioned at only two conferences; one noting it as "a critical problem," the other commenting it was "no problem." Questionnaire respondents were divided into two extremes in their answers to a question of whether pesticides are a problem, with 40% indicating no problem and 44% indicating a serious problem (one possible explanation may be the differing pesticide exposure levels of respondents, due to association with different crops and geographic areas)

The federal government has recognized the still prevalent pesticide problem through the installation, in spring of 1975, of a toll-free telephone system whereby individuals can report pesticide abuses to the Pesticides Enforcement Division of the Environmental Protection Agency. (15,p.7) However, this system was in operation from only June 8 - July 20, 1975. Further federal recognition of pesticide problems is apparent in the current Congressional hearings concerning the pesticide Kepone which began in January, 1976.

In another work related area, questionnaire respondents indicated that most growers do not provide fresh water in the fields. This was particularly high for respondents from user areas.

Unsanitary living conditions and lack of proper diet enhance the possibilities of farmworkers' getting sick and contriubte to most of their other prevalent health problems. Overcrowded housing, particularly in labor camps, contributes to general unsanitary conditions and allows for swift spread of disease. Questionnaire respondents noted unsanitary conditions within labor camps; 54% indicated they were an extremely serious problem.

Housing problems affect not only the physical, but the emotional health of farmworkers. As stated in one study:

> Structural defects in housing cause accidents. Overcrowding result[s] in emotional problems. Also, overcrowding and poor sanitation and water facilities encourage the spread of communicable disease. (10,p.35)

An example of the latter problem was the large typhoid outbreak in Florida in 1973, as discussed earlier. This outbreak at a labor camp was traced to an unsanitary camp water supply. Housing conditions also foster the recurrence of gastrointestinal problems and respiratory ailments.

Another common problem related to unsafe housing is the ingestion of lead-based paint chips by toddlers. The resultant lead poisoning is considered a "common pediatric problem" among farmworker children. One study of 4,000 - 6,000 migrant residents of labor camps in New York "found that all children living in such housing should be recognized as having been subjected to lead exposure." (10,p.37)

AVAILABILITY OF HEALTH CARE

Farmworkers do not utilize the regular health care systems established for the general population. This situation is due to their status as rural poor and their status as "minority" and mobile citizens.

Receipt of Health Care by Farmworkers

As a general rule, farmworkers utilize the health care system only on an emergency basis. Preventive health care is not practiced. "The presence of an acute medical condition and preceived poor health are the greatest factors influencing the use of health care resources." (34,p.66,67)

Farmworker Physician Visits - One measure of receipt of health care is the approximate number of annual farmworker physician visits as a percentage of the national population average of annual physician visits. As estimate of 8% to 70% was given by the Associated Migrant Opportunity Services. (19,p.37) A more conservative estimate was provided by the Good Neighbor Commission of Texas: "The migrant worker visits a physician less than once a year compared to the average citizen who sees a doctor 4.2 times a year." (16,p.53) An estimate given by the Committee on Labor and Public Welfare at a Joint Hearing Before the Subcommittee on Health and the Subcommittee on Migratory Labor was 4.3 average visits per year nationally to .61 visits per average farmworker. (28,p.123)

Health Care for Children and Women of Childbearing Age - Of those farmworkers receiving health care, the most prevalent patients are children and women of childbearing age. Men between the ages of 15 and 64 receive little health care other than emergency assistance.

Most basic health care received by farmworkers is provided through public health programs, particularly the federally funded Migrant Health Program (discussed in greater detail in a later section of this chapter). Historically, most of the farmworkers who receive treatment are under 15 years of age or are females of childbearing age, between the ages of 15 and 44. A study conducted by the Farmworkers Health Service in California's Department of Public Health for 1966-1967 noted "at 15 different health clinic locations...the patients under 15 years of age accounted for 42[illegible] of the total visits, while females 15 years of age and over accounted for 49%." (14,p.12) A 1970 study of the Palm Beach County Migrant Health Project in Florida showed that "47% of the patients were children under 15; 38% were females over 15; and 16% were males over 15." (14,p.13) Additionally, 41% of all hospital admissions were for maternity care. (14,p.59) A 1971 study conducted to assess the feasibility of a migrant health insurance plan, surveyed 1164 migrants making physician visits. If found 26% were under 15, 50% were females between the ages of 15 and 44, and 14% were women over 45 years of age. (14,p.61)

A 1974 analysis made by the National Migrant Referral Project, Inc. of Austin, Texas showed "27.0% [of patients referred] were children less than 15 years of age, 42.5% were between 15 and 40 years of age, and 30.5% were 40 years of age or older." (24,p.8) Of this sample population, 66% were female and 24% were male. Additionally, as reported through the National Migrant Referral Project, Inc., "the five principle health services requested were, prenatal, diabetes, immunization, hypertension and family planning." (24,p.15) Three of these services are aimed specifically at children and women of childbearing age. In fact, a quarter of all health service requests were exclusive to women in the categories of prenatal, postpartum, family planning, gynecological and cancer cytology. Women patients also appeared in other general health service categories.

Section 319 of the Migrant Health Act, also recognizes children and women of childbearing age as patient grou[illegible] These groups are the only ones to which specific services are targeted. Among types of medical care authorized under Section 319, one category--family planning--is aimed exclusively at these groups, and a second category, preventive services, has a listing of four services, three of which are aimed at these patient groups. The other two categories are general service areas; diagnosis, treatment and follow-up and other services; aimed at the general population. (31,p.24-26)

Questionnaire respondents also indicated a positive response to provision of health services in their areas for women of childbearing age. Of those responding, 82% said family planning services were provided in their area, ranking family planning moderate in unmet need. The response given for unmet need was the lowest ranking received by any service category in the "extent of unmet need" category. This reveals a feeling that family planning services are adequately available in comparison to other needs. This does not, however, mean those contacted for this study felt family planning was not an essential service. Questionnaire respondents, who rated the service high on a "usefulness to farmworkers" scale, and conference participants both attested to its value.

One reason for the prominence of children's health services and the large number of children receiving health care is the national emphasis placed on children's health. Children are not allowed to enroll in most schools without proper immunization and are provided some basic health services and health education as part of their educational curriculum. The prevalence of women among those receiving health services is tied to their being the childbearers and the primary guardians of their children. Also, as suggested by the National Migrant Referral Project, the predominance of women may be a reflection, "of their greater availability to clinic facilities and more frequent attendance at clinics while accompanying their children." (24,p.10)

In contrast to women and children, farmworker men between the ages of 15 and 64, past childhood yet below the age eligibility for Medicare, are not receiving basic health services. The male in this age bracket is the primary farmworker, and many crews are made of people falling in this category. From the data it appears this group is primarily receiving service for emergencies and some chronic health problems. They do not obtain regular physicals and other preventive medical services.

There are a number of reasons why this segment of the farmworker population does not receive routine health care. First, as the male is the primary bread winner, he may not be able to take time from work for other than emergency health care. Second, males in this age bracket have no distinctive health needs and so are not pinpointed as being in need of specialized services. Third, among males, particularly among Mexican-Americans, the internal and peer group pressure to project a "macho" image dictates they endure pain and discourages practice of preventive health procedures.

Barriers to Farmworkers Receiving Adequate Health Care

Farmworkers face numerous barriers to receipt of adequate health care. As stated in the Texas Migrant Labor 1974 Annual Report, "Securing health care is a chronic crisis...[making] illness a major catastrophe for the migrant worker." (17,p.46)

Farmworkers face two types of barriers to receipt of adequate health care. One group of barriers they share with the entire rural population, particularly the rural poor. The other group of barriers is more specifically related to the problems farmworkers face as economically disadvantaged "minority" citizens and to special roadblocks confronting migrants due to their constant mobility.

Barriers to Health Care as Rural Citizens - Farmworkers, as rural citizens, face a geographic isolation which inhibits provision of health services and hampers their ability to receive services which are available. Specific barriers which farmworkers encounter in this area are:

- Lack of health personnel and medical facilities and equipment in rural areas.
- Lack of transportation.
- Inconvenient clinic and pharmacy hours.
- Lack of necessary funds for private treatment and hospital in-patient care.
- Lack of health education on the part of the general farmworker population.

Lack of Medical Facilities and Personnel - One of the most apparent hindrances to health care for farmworkers and for other rural residents is the lack of medical assistance due to geographic isolation. As noted in the Texas Migrant Labor 1973 Annual Report,

> The shortage of medical personnel and facilities is too apparent in rural America. The shortage of physicians in rural counties continues and their numbers will probably

> continue to decrease by attrition as elderly doctors retire or move away and are not replaced. In addition to the lack of doctors in rural counties, the physician-to-population ratio in rural areas is so low that people living in rural communities must travel long distances to receive medical care. As would be expected, rural hospitals are small, often inefficiently operated, and without sufficient equipment to provide comprehensive health services. (16,p.54)

Some physician-patient ratios cited through the course of this study repeatedly pointed to the difficulty in gaining access to a physician in a rural area:

Indiana - "In 1971 the doctor/patient ratio [in rural areas]... was 40% below the national average of 174 doctors per 100,000 residents." (19,p.39)

Minnesota - One county has only one doctor for all of the residents of the county. (3)

Idaho - All of the Migrant Health program centers are in only one of the three valleys in the state where there are concentrations of farmworkers. (5)

Michigan - For a 12-county area, there is only one medic, leaving the area without any source of care if he should leave. (3)

Texas - One county in South Texas has a school nurse serving as the only source of health care within a 40 mile radius. (21,p.120)

As a result of the physician shortage, a physician overload occurs with "the sheer concentration of numbers...[not permitting] health provider agencies to give each patient the attention he deserves." (24,p.6) In Indiana, doctors refuse to sign the hospital admittance papers accepting new patients because of their patient overload. (19,p.45) Despite the above data it should be noted that 58% of questionnaire respondents indicated there was a doctor nearby who would help if a farmworker gets sick. A further breakdown of this data indicated a stronger sense of physician availability among user area respondents than among homebase respondents.

Migrant Health Clinics experience much difficulty in recruiting physicians to work in their facilities. Physicians outside the area are reluctant to commit themselves to work in rural areas with limited advancement opportunities and few social rewards. The salaries which migrant clinics are able to offer are usually considerably lower than what can be obtained through private practice, and often funds are only available for a part-time physician. Additionally, rural physicians practicing in the area of the clinic many times look with disfavor on attempts to bring in outside physicians. However, when local physicians are asked to assist in providing services, they often refuse due to their patient overload and other factors.

Rural areas are often poor financially and, as such, unable to afford expensive modern medical equipment and high specialist fees. According to a DOL task force report, "Rural hospitals are often inadequately staffed, poorly equipped, and lacking out-patient and extended care facilities...[and] emergency vehicles and other mobile health services." (33,p.16-17) Facilities and services may vary greatly from location to location within one state. (1) Some health problems which are endemic to farmworker populations, e.g., tuberculosis, are not common to the population at large and so may not be readily diagnosed by rural physicians who are unfamiliar with the disease.

Lack of Transportation - The farmworker population is dispersed over a large rural area, and medical facilities, both in-patient and out-patient, are usually concentrated in population centers. Thus, farmworkers face extreme transportation problems in reaching medical assistance. Facilities were said by conference participants to be "remote and inaccessible" (8) to farmworkers, who have been known to die in route to medical facilities when faced with an acute emergency. (1) In many instances, crew leaders control transportation methods, thereby controlling the farmworkers' ability to receive medical care. In only a few instances are mobile clinics utilized to bring primary health service to farmworkers, and the ability of federally funded Migrant Health clinics to provide outreach and transportation services is at a minimum.

Inconvenient Hours - Farmworkers' low-incomes and the decreasing availability of agricultural work forces them to take advantage of any and all employment opportunities which fall their way. Most will not leave work to attend to preventive health needs for themselves or their families, and they will seek medical assistance during prime work hours only for emergencies. On the other hand, most clinical facilities, maintain only regular work day hours, closing as farmworkers leave work. Others require farmworkers to travel great distances and wait long periods for service. This conflict in schedules is another barrier to farmworkers' receipt of adequate health care.

Many Migrant Health Clinics recognize this problem and regulate their hours according to farmworker needs, for example, "staying open evenings and weekends and handling the excess load that always materializes on rainy days." (5) However, public facilities are usually unconcerned with this conflict, since the majority of their clients have few problems with regular hours. Some instances were cited at conferences of migrant health clinics convincing pharmacies and other medical units, such as hospital diagnosis and x-ray facilities, to maintain night hours, but for the most part, service hour conflicts are widespread.

Lack of Funds - Based primarily on a system of private doctors and facilities, money is essential for the receipt of adequate health care in the United States. Farmworkers, falling under the poverty level most of the time (the average annual farmworker income is $3,900), lack essential funds with which to receive private physician care, purchase health and hosptial insurance, and secure admittance to hospitals. "With recent increases in medical costs, the amount of medical care that a migrant [here migrant means "farmworker" in definitional terms of this report] family can afford is relatively small and the large fact remains that the major deterrent to health care is--money. The cost of good health care delivery in rural areas is at an all-time high." (16,p.53)

Farmworkers must be willing to donate a large portion of their low incomes to obtain direct services from private physicians. Those who cannot pay are reticent to approach any part of the traditional medical system. Doctors are reluctant to accept as patients those who cannot pay, unless they are subsidized under Medicaid/Medicare, welfare or other federal, state, and local programs. Migrant health clinics often fact frustrations in contracting health services through local physicians "who first want to know where the money will come from and then set an appointment three weeks later." (5)

A Florida health study revealed some "concern" among dentists over a lack of dental care for farmworkers. However, dentists were reluctant to provide such care on a subsidy basis. Those who were interviewed "indicated some of the reasons why more care has not been provided: the emergency nature of the care, broken appointments, prescriptions such as 'extract tooth,' too many people accompanying a single patient, use of the Veterans Administration fee schedule, and the inconsistent policy from year to year." (34,p.14) The Florida study went further to examine a sample of patients. It noted an extensive number of dental problems, estimating it would cost an average of $545 per individual to make necessary dental repairs.

As a result of lack of finances and the reluctance of private primary health providers to render basic health care, farmworkers often seek medical care only on an emergency basis. "Only two groups have any hope for relief: Those who are somewhat better off financially and those who are most critically ill." (35,p.156) Except for a couple of experimental programs, farmworkers, as a general rule, have no form of health or hospital insurance plans or federal insurance specification regulations. State movements to force growers into providing health insurance have proven unsuccessful. (9) In some areas, a general reluctance on the part of physicians to treat uninsured farmworkers has been seen. (3)

In general, admittance of uninsured patients to hospitals requires presentation of cash on entrance. "The standard procedure of requiring cash for services and a cash deposit before hospital admission, places an impossible burden upon those least able to afford the high cost of being sick." (35,p.155) Sick farmworkers are refused service at hospitals because they cannot pay deposits. A Migrant Health Insurance Feasibility Study showed that 6% of all hospital admission applications by farmworkers were refused. (14,p.59) At four conferences, statements were made that farmworkers in need of hospital care were turned away for lack of cash deposits. In some instances, seriously ill farmworkers have died in route to other facilities after being turned away from hospitals. At the California conference, it was reported that this was a contributing factor in the death of seven farmworkers in the past fourteen months.

On the other side, however, hospitals are also faced with rising medical costs. The closing of six county hospitals in the past three years in California, due to financial difficulties, forced other area hospitals to tighten up indigent admittance procedures. The Florida study revealed two area hospitals which would admit indigents but which were greatly influenced by the patients' ability to pay and required referral for admittance from a private physician. A study of one hospital showed it received only $41,000 per year from the county for indigent care. "Although the hospital administrator claims everyone is admitted without regard to their ability to pay, only 12 indigents were admitted to this hospital last year (1972). The majority of patients are sent to...[a teaching hospital] about 40 miles away." (34,p.9)

The Hill-Burton Act, requiring hospitals receiving federal funds to provide care for indigent patients has had little effect on helping farm workers receive services. An Indiana study found 72 hospitals within the state which fall under provisions of the Act, with 49 indicating they maintain an "open door" policy of not denying admission to those unable to pay for services, yet "many [of these same] hospitals refuse to admit patients before proof of financial responsibility is presented." (19,p.45) At two conferences, participants indicated farmworkers were unaware of their right to service under the Act, and hospitals required to post notice of Hill-Burton regulations failed to do so. Participants at the Northwest Conference indicated they must constantly intervene on behalf of farmworkers at Hill-Burton facilities. They indicated discrimination would be wide-spread if their "monitoring" were removed. At one conference, some CETA 303 participants showed total lack of awareness of Hill-Burton hospital requirements. As stated in the Indiana study, federal monitoring of the Act does not require reporting of indigent patients admitted by race or occupation, making it impossible to document lack of service to farmworker populations.

Once an indigent farmworker has been admitted to a hospital, either the hospital pays all or part of the bill, or an area migrant clinic is billed for services rendered. Often farmworkers turn to migrant health clinics for assistance only after they have accumulated a high medical bill. (8) CETA 303 programs are limited by law to an average medical expenditure of $250 per client family.

One very serious problem noted at most of the conferences was the inability to secure elective in-patient care for indigent farmworkers; such as surgery and diagnosis. Even those conference participants who indicated no problems with emergency admissions indicated difficulty in obtaining corrective treatment for patients with chronic problems. This is particularly tru in user areas where residency requirements make eligibility for Medicaid impossible for migrants. As a result, many "emergencies" are fabricated to ensure care, or patients are forced to go without assistance.

Another problem cited at two conferences and in one questionnaire was the disposition of corpses of farmworkers who die in-stream. When families do not have any means by which to bury a family member they will not claim the corpse. Two conference participants indicated possession of unclaimed bodies, insisting state and local resources refuse assistance in resolving this dilemma. (3,6)

In testimony before Congress, Gordon Harper, M.D., summarized the monetary cirsis associated with provision of farmworker health care through documentation of one incident he encountered:

> In this case, however, before a doctor had a chance to consider this diagnosis [meningitis in a three month old baby], another hurdle had to be crossed: the father had to pay. At the beginning of the season, there was only enough money to get to the fields in Michigan, and the father and the hospital people argued about money. In the end, a nurse gave the father an oral medicine to give the baby, and they went out, no doctor having seen the child. They returned the next night, the baby listless and febrile, and he was admitted. Even so, the father said, no doctor saw the baby for several hours and when the diagnosis was made then, it was indeed meningitis. Intensive therapy was begun, but the baby went on to die. (18,p.178)

Lack of Health Education - Another very strong deterrent to farmworker receipt of adequate health care is the lack of health education among the population. Generally, farmworkers view health in terms of emergency needs, and they are often unaware of the concept of preventive medicine. They are unaware of the rationale behind having their children immunized. They continue working as long as they are able, not realizing that immediate treatment prevents prolonged illness. Extended treatment seems irrational to a farmworker who cannot afford a second physician's visit or prescribed medication. As noted by one health program worker, "A mother does not follow her physician's orders to call when her baby's temperature goes above 102° because she does not know how to take a temperature, she does not have a thermometer, and the nearest telephone is miles away." (19,p.39) A physician's orders to rest are not followed by a farmworker who is employed. Oral hygiene and proper dental care are not practiced, leading to serious dental problems.

Often, what seems like a lack of health education may instead be a lack of control over living and work environment. A mother may be aware of the necessity for proper storage and preparation of food, but she may lack the necessary facilities with which to prevent spoilage. Farmworkers may be aware of the dangers involved in exposure to certain pesticides, but economic necessity may force them to work under contaminated conditions.

An additional problem, pointed out in the Florida study, is the dependence of migrants on crew leaders. The latter are "the only link between the migrants and the grower and between the migrants and the larger community;" however, crew leaders are "rather indifferent in urging migrants to use health services." (34,p.152-153) Migrants' decisions to use or not to use the health system are thus heavily influenced by the lack of encouragement or even discouragement by crew leaders, since migrants are highly dependent on them for basic needs.

The value of health education cannot be denied. For example, one conference participant stated education about family planning and prenatal care and availability make a mother healthier and more conscious of nutritional and other health related needs of her child. This allows her to bear a healthier child in whom she will instill values concerning health. If she becomes pregnant again, she is conscious of and will demand her health needs. (4)

Barriers to Health Care as Mobile and Minority Citizens - A few barriers to adequate health care are particularly acute for farmworkers, although other mobile and minority citizens also face them to a certain extent. These include:

° Lack of continuous health care and difficulty in receiving in-stream assistance.

° Cultural and language communication barriers between health providers and farmworkers.

° Insensitivity of communities and health personnel to "minorities."

These obstacles, coupled with those mentioned earlier, combine to further limit accessibility to health services for farmworkers. The latter two barriers have been somewhat mitigated at federally financed Migrant Health Clinics and some other public facilities where personnel dealing exclusively with the farmworker population are sensitive to their unique needs. However, the private sector of medical providers, and many public health personnel with whom both farmworkers and Migrant Health Programs must deal, are still insensitive to farmworker needs.

Lack of Continuous Health Care and In-Stream Assistance - Continuity of health care may be broken for many farmworkers due to their inability to afford continuous treatment or their lack of health education concerning the need for continuous or preventive care. Follow-up care is not provided by most health agencies because they are unable to provide outreach workers to assure that prescribed medications are taken as directed, home health care instructions are followed, and return visits are made to the clinic for a check-up on schedule. For migrants, however, the problem of continuous care is more acute. Due to the nature of migratory work, long term care is impossible while they are in-stream. Basic treatment is not continued by the same physician; a migrant told to come back in three weeks for a check-up may not be in the area in three weeks. It was stated at one conference that physicians are hesitant to accept migrant pregnancy cases for this reason, "because they do the work-up and then the patients aren't around to deliver under the doctors care." (4) Some of this reluctance may be due to dissatisfaction in working with migrant patients. This was illustrated in a Florida study where physicians, erving migrants and receiving no remuneration, complained they "did not get to know their migrant patients, might see them only once, get no feedback on the effectiveness of their care, nor derive any satisfaction that they were practicing good medicine as they understood it." (34,p.12)

Additionally, a migrant in-stream is faced with the difficulty of finding medical services in an unfamiliar area and often an area with no specific migrant health services. Sometimes faced with a hostile community, migrants will wait until returning to home base before seeking medical services. Stories were related at four conferences of migrants returning home with illnesses untreated or with a chronic illness in advanced stages, for which primary treatment had been received in home base areas but for which no subsequent care was undertaken. (4,5,6,8) At one conference, accounts were given of migrant families driving great distances in health emergencies to reach home base areas and familiar health facilities. In some instances, the patients died before assistance could be reached.

In response to this situation, one health related migrant program maintains a policy of ascertaining expected travel patterns of its clients and distributing listings of health assistance locations within the travel area. Additionally, the program is able to allow clients to call collect if they are experiencing health difficulties in-stream and are unsure where to turn for assistance. (8)

One major problem is a lack of health service linkages between areas in migrant streams. In many instances, health clinics seeing patients in need of continuous care are unable to tell their patients where they can receive such care as they travel. Although program linkage is seen as a necessary element, conference participants disagreed about the total value of some form of record transfer system for various reasons. On the positive side, such a system would allow physicians to obtain patient histories before initiating treatment and might serve to eliminate the diagnosis and initiation of different treatment from physician to physician as the patient travels up-stream. It might also save patients from having to undergo repeated, time-consuming, and sometimes painful diagnosis processes as they travel from physician to physician. On the negative side, however, it was said that such a system might not be utilized by physicians, who would disregard patient records rather than accept another physician's assessment. Additionally, such record transfer systems are slow in operation when immediate information is necessary. For example, one participant at the Northeast Conference indicated she had received only one request for a patient's medical records, and by the time she got around to forwarding the records, the patient was back in her area again.

Major medical services--operations and specialist or extended treatment--were seen as best performed in home base areas. These areas are set to provide more comprehensive services where migrants are in familiar areas for longer periods of time, and they have more free time, thus removing the necessity of seeking health services during work time. Often in-stream migrant health clinics are geared to operate only during peak seasons after which they are closed. They are unable to treat chronic illnesses or maintain patient treatment for extended periods of time "feeling that certain health needs should not be met by those dealing with patients for a very short period..., since many months, not weeks, are required for effective treatment." (24,p.6) Witness to this fact is given by the National Migrant Referral Project, Inc. which notes that most health referrals are from homebase to user areas (for follow-up) or from user areas to homebase, rather than from user area to user area.

Cultural and Language Communication Barriers - There is a lack of understanding and communication between predominantly white health providers and mostly minority (largely Spanish-speaking) farmworkers which contributes heavily to a lack of adequate health care for farmworkers. As noted by DOL's Farmworker Task Force: "The inexperience of health professionals in providing services to farmworkers, especially migratory workers" (33,p.17) often brings conflicting views into play when health services are provided. The health provider with no background in dealing with farmworkers may ignore or misunderstand familial customs of the farmworker or health problems associated with living or work conditions. Farmworkers may fear and misunderstand specific medical practices of health providers. The result is the appearance of rudeness and authoritarianism on the part of health providers and a shrinking away from standard health practices and medical assistance by farmworkers.

Additionally, when Spanish is the primary language, farmworkers may experience extreme difficulty in communicating their symptoms and conditions in English. Often an interpreter is required, and if not supplied by the patient, one may not be available. Physicians suffering from patient overload may not have the patience necessary to communicate with a patient speaking broken English, resulting in further communication breakdown between patient and physician. Unable or too fearful to communicate his or her symptoms and unable to understand medical instructions provided in English, the patient is presented with inadequate health care, despite provision of health services.

One solution may be the training of more minority health providers and encouraging these specially qualified medical personnel to practice in rural areas. Farmworkers are most communicative with medical personnel with whom they can identify. Those whose primary language is Spanish trust and are open to physicians with whom they can communicate in Spanish.

Insensitivity of Health and Community Personnel - Farmworkers are often faced with insensitivity from community and health personnel to their health needs, and they are consequently excluded from services. This situation arises from a feeling of separatism associated with differing customs, language, and, for migrants, the status of being outsiders. As minorities farmworkers often face discrimination and as victims of poverty they are looked down upon. As Spanish speakers they are considered foreigners, and as temporary residents they are seen as intruders. The work they perform is a necessary function within the agricultural community they serve, yet many communities take advantage of them by raising prices of goods they purchase, by refusing to provide adequate housing, and by excluding them "by local policy or practice from health services that they desperately need." (17,p.46) An example of this insensitivity was recounted by Gordon Harper, M.D., in Congressional testimony:

> "Babies die all the time," said one grower, when asked about a notorious case of a nine-month-old who died last year of diarrhea and dehydration, after being refused admission to a hospital in Southwest Michigan; "Why should they get so excited when one dies here?" (18,p.178)

Farmworkers utilizing traditional health service delivery systems are seen as disrupting standardized procedures. They dress and act differently from regular patients and often have trouble communicating. In general, they make regular patients and medical personnel uncomfortable. Additionally, those farmworker patients who are covered by welfare or Medicaid may meet discrimination from doctors who are reluctant to accept such patients or who view such patients as being lower in status than regular patients.

Attitudinal barriers are hard to measure and can only be observed through the actions of participants. Migrants are stereotyped as potential illegals, precipitating statements about opposition to use of tax dollars to serve non-citizens. (5) Local doctors are hesitant to establish contracts with migrant health programs; when they do so, by performing routine physicals, for example, patients are treated in an assembly line manner (5), or even ignored. (1) In other situations, physicians treat minor problems of farmworkers but collect fees from federal programs greatly disproportionate to the service rendered. Once a farmworker has quickly amassed his or her allotment of funds through the federal subsidy, the treatment ends, and serious ailments go untreated by the same physician who has garnered a good fee for minimum services. (1) It is no wonder that farmworkers by the Texas-Mexico border flock to Mexico "for dental and medical treatment which [is] less expensive and for care which [is] kinder, more humane than they could obtain in their own communities." (35,p.156)

Migrant health programs and farmworkers themselves have no choice among health providers. Often the only source of medical assistance is a very limited number of local health personnel, who make it known by their attitude that they do not wish to serve farmworkers. When physicians in a Florida study were asked to describe "an ideal health delivery system regardless of economic impediments" they voted equally in favor of private physician care and care through a migrant clinic. However, when asked "under what circumstances they would be able to increase their involvement in migrant health care, a preference for no further involvement of any kind was indicated by 46% of the physicians." (34,p.12) (The same situation was seen in a survey of health needs assessment conducted in South Texas.[21])

Many of the Florida physicians went on to state "that even if a migrant could afford to pay the fee, they would prefer to see him treated in facilities organized for seasonal farmworkers. Private doctors appeared to view their primary obligation to permanent residents of their community." (34,p.13) It is not surprising that migrant health programs sometimes express despair. As one conference participant noted: "It sometimes seems futile altogether to continue such arrangements, [contracting services through local doctors]." (5)

FARMWORKER HEALTH PROGRAMS

Primary health service units for the farmworker population are federally funded Migrant Health Program clinics and referral agencies, and state and local public service agencies, which provide direct and referral assistance in usually limited areas. One further federal source, the CETA 303 health component, limits expenditures for eligible clients to an average of $250 per family with $500 maximum expenditure per family. Most funds are utilized for check-up services for manpower trainees or their families. In many instances medical emergencies may deplete a large segment of a 303's budgetary health allotment. CETA 303s also perform informal referral services for clients in need of assistance.

Migrant Health Programs

Programs - The Migrant Health Act, initiated in 1962, authorizes distribution of grants to public and non-profit agencies for "establishing and operating family health service clinics for domestic agricultural workers and their families...[and conducting] special projects to improve health services and the health conditions." (12,p.37) Further amendments to the Act in 1965, 1970, and 1973 expanded it to encompass hospital care, to include service to seasonals, to include a community base in planning, and to begin a training program.

Funded for $23,750,000 for fiscal year 1975, health service programs provide services as listed in Table 13, with 46% providing "scheduled comprehensive health services" and 27% providing "full-time comprehensive health services." Of the programs listed, the largest number are located in Texas with 17; Florida second with 13 (9 clinics being listed as associated with the Florida Department of Health); California third with 10; New York fourth with 6; and North Carolina and Ohio fifth with 5 each. As can be seen, heavy concentration of programs occurs in homebase areas. Fifty-seven percent of the programs are sponsored by general, non-profit organizations, with three programs sponsored by local hospitals, four sponsored by medical societies or nurses associations, and one sponsored by a growers association. State health departments sponsor 10 programs, city/county health departments sponsor 16 programs and County Commissioners Courts in Texas sponsor 4. National agencies in Puerto Rico sponsor 2 programs. (32) A regional breakdown by number of grantees, number of service sites, and types of service provided is given in Table 14. The Bureau of Migrant Health estimates 400,000 persons were served by the Program in Fiscal Year 1976. A regional breakdown of funds for Fiscal Year 1976 is provided in Table 14A.

A complete breakdown of types of clients served, illnesses reported, health services rendered and other tabular information is not available at the present time, although such information will be obtainable in the near future due to the initiation of a comprehensive reporting form to be utilized by all federally funded migrant health programs (A copy of the form is included in the Appendix).

TABLE 13

HEALTH SERVICES PROVIDED BY MIGRANT HEALTH PROGRAMS, AUGUST 1975

Type of Service	Number of Programs Providing Service
Full-time Comprehensive Health Services	25
Scheduled Comprehensive Health Services	43
Scheduled Medical Services	12
Scheduled Categorical Health Services	7
Nonscheduled Health Services	3
Administrative/Consultative Services	2
Other Health Related Services	2

DESCRIPTION

Full-Time Comprehensive Health Services: A comprehenisve range of diagnostic, therapeutic, and follow-up medical services offered by the project on a daily and year round basis by full-time medical staff in a center setting. Provisions for dental care, health counseling and outreach services, as well as adequate provisions for preventive services are offered either inside or outside the center.

Scheduled Comprehensive Health Services: A scope of medical services similar to those listed above are offered by the project, but through intermittently scheduled clinics (eg, one or two times a week at two or three hours per session). In general, these clinic sessions are backed by referrals of patients by nurses and outreach workers to local physicians on a fee-for-service basis at times when clinics are not in session. Provisions are also made for caring for other health needs such as dental care, health counseling, and outreach services in addition to preventive services. Environmental health activities are an element of the project.

Scheduled Medical Services: Although the project offers complete diagnostic, therapeutic, and follow-up medical services through intermittently scheduled clinics with referral to private physicians during non-clinic hours, provisions are not necessarily made to offer dental care services and other health services mentioned above. Environmental health activities may be an element of the project.

Scheduled Categorical Health Services: The project focuses upon clinics for specific diseases or categorical emphasis (eg, tuberculosis control, venereal disease control, maternal and child health, immunization, etc.) and does not offer a broad range of medical services in a clinic setting. General health care is provided through referral by nurses and outreach workers to private physicians and dentists on a fee-for-service basis. Camp sanitation inspections and efforts to correct deficiencies may be a component of the project.

Nonscheduled Health Services: All general health care is provided by the project through a fee-for-service referral system to private physicians, and, in some instances, to private dentists. Nursing services provided are primarily outreach and follow-up. Camp sanitation inspections and efforts to correct deficiencies may be a component of the project.

Administrative/Consultative Services: The project does little, if any, in the way of providing direct health care and devotes its efforts to consulting and coordinating the direct health care activities of other groups.

Other Health Related Services: A project headquartered in the District of Columbia will operate on the East Coast migrant stream to supplement existing project services concentrating primarily on continuity of patient care from one project area to another. State level coordination on the project provides nonscheduled health services and administrative/consultative services in several counties in the state.

Source: U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Health Services and Mental Health Administration, Community Health Services, "Migrant Health Directory," Washington, D.C., August, 1975.

TABLE 14

[1] REGIONAL DISTRIBUTION OF MIGRANT HEALTH GRANTEES

Region	Number of Grantees	Number of of Service Sites	[2] TYPE OF SERVICE GRANTED							
			Full-Time Comprehensive	Scheduled Comprehensive	Scheduled Medical	Scheduled Categorical	Non-scheduled	Administrative Consultative	Other	Not Noted
I	3	6		3						
II	12 [3]	16	3	6	1	1 [4]	2			
III	5	9		3			1		1	
IV	10 [5]	36	3	1	4			1		1
V	12	48		9	3					
VI	20	42	6	8	2	4				
VII	6	10		3	2	1				
VIII	6	29	2	1		1 [6]		1	1	1
IX	13	29	6	7						
X	6	17	5 [7]	2						

[1] Utilizing DHEW regional divisions

[2] See Table 11 for "Type of Service" definitions

[3] Two grantees in Puerto Rico

[4] One grantee provides both scheduled categorical and nonscheduled services

[5] One grantee has 9 projects

[6] One grantee provides both scheduled categorical and administrative/consultative services

[7] One grantee provides both full-time comprehensive and scheduled comprehensive services

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Source: U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Health Services and Mental Health Administration, Community Health Services, "Migrant Health Directory," Washington, D.C., August, 1975.

TABLE 11A

REGIONAL DISTRIBUTION
OF MIGRANT HEALTH FUNDS, FISCAL YEAR 1978

REGION	AMOUNT
I	$ 105,000
II	1,800,000
III	669,441
IV	3,271,814
V	2,555,576
VI	4,558,558
VII	579,587
VIII	1,207,000
IX	4,480,600
X	1,902,011
TOTAL	$21,505,927

Source: U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Bureau of [illegible], [illegible] Health Services Administration, [illegible] Health Services.

is given in the National Migrant Health Service Directory. This source lists 77 project sites, rather than the 98 project sites given in the "Migrant Health Directory," but the former provides a listing of 205 service sites. Service categories for the 205 sites are provided in Table 15. This source also lists 112 sites in operation year-round, 54 sites in operation for specified time periods, 3 sites providing partial services year-round and full services for specified time periods, and 36 sites with unspecified operational periods. (25)

Conference participants indicated they felt the primary objective of migrant clinics should be diagnostic and curative service, through which preventive medicine could be applied and health education taught. The former category, however, was described as being most in need. Participants also indicated their programs served as advocates for farmworkers in their communities, intervening on their behalf.

One innovative project initiated through migrant health funds is the Migrant Hospitalization Demonstration Program, begun in 1974. The project involves provision of hospital services for migrants or their families associated with seven selected Migrant Health Programs. Hospital, physician, and related hospitalization bills are reimbursed by a Federal agency, the Bureau of Health Insurance, for migrant patients who are referred to the hospital by the selected Migrant Health Programs. Stated goals of the program are "to provide hospital care effectively and economically for a selected migrant population and to demonstrate the feasibility of using a fiscal intermediary that has established

TABLE 33

HEALTH SERVICES PROVIDED BY MIGRANT HEALTH PROGRAM SERVICE SITES

Service Category	Number of Sites Providing Service
General medicine, comprehensive out-patient health service (Sites noted under this category may perform all or some of the services listed below)	118
Dental service	77
Immunizations	67
Referrals	65
Home health, outreach	65
Health education, nutrition education, other education	60
Family planning	56
Specialized disease testing and treatment: tuberculosis, cancer, venereal disease, diabetes, sickle cell anemia, hypertensive screening	53
Laboratory services	50
Pharmacy	45
Well baby	44
Gynecological services, pre-natal	43
Physical examinations and screening	38
X-ray	34

Service Category	Number of Sites Providing Service
Visual-audio	28
Emergency care	27
Transportation	20
Hospitalization	17
Pediatrics	14
Specialized services: women, infant and children; foot care; alcohol treatment; orthopedics	13
Mental health, psychiatric treatment	6
Labor camp inspections	4
Special clinics	4
Chronic disease	3
Special treatment services: physical therapy, casefinding	3

Source: National Migrant Referral Project, Inc., National Migrant Health Services Directory, Austin, Texas, July, 1975.

quality, cost, and utilization controls for the provision of such care for migrants." (30,p.2) Additional objectives involve gathering data concerning the cause and cost of migrant hospitalization and making a cost comparison of this system to other migrant hosptialization systems.

Other innovative programs initiated under the Migrant Health Act include:

- A migrant health insurance plan originating in Laredo, Texas, which provides totally free medical and dental services for a test group who carry program insurance cards as they go up-stream.
- Coordination with local HMO's to buy insurance packages for farmworkers.
- A program similar to the one in Laredo but originating in Florida. Migrants are given a "credit card" which can be utilized for health services at various local health facilities.

Problems - Migrant health programs have been described by some people as proof "that there [are] ways of developing health services for a migrant population," (28,p.3) and by others as "less than impressive." (19,p.39) There is no question that these programs have provided a very necessary service to a segment of the population which would otherwise generally go without health care. Many of the programs begun under the Migrant Health Act have become innovative models for provision of health care to the poor. Additionally, the Migrant Health Programs have been responsible for stressing services, such as bilingual training for health personnel, family oriented primary care, and on-site services. Many people, however, are frustrated with the little impact made in provision of health care to the total farmworker population since 1962 and point to program problems as severely hampering progress. Provision of basic health care is generally available to farmworkers, but service deficiencies are still apparent in the areas of hospitalization, dental and specialty care.

Lack of financial resources is one problem area responsible for limitations in services provided. In addition to funding and personnel problems, other problems include:

° Lack of linkages between migrant health facilities.

° Difficulty in obtaining authorization to purchase necessary supplies or initiate and maintain mobile health clinics.

° Restrictive federal rules and regulations concerning bureaucratic procedural processes.

° Lack of emergency hospitalization procedures.

State and Local Health Services for Farmworkers

Although primary farmworker health service funding comes from the Migrant Health Act, some state and local funds and private resources are utilized specifically to serve the farmworker population. These include regular services of a public health nurse, state authorized TB mobile treatment units, family planning services, and other health assistance. Specific services identified through this study and state farmworker health descriptions, as discussed at conferences, include:

Indiana - State supported migrant health nurses in 14 counties and state provided health care in 15 additional counties. Health officials visit local schools and labor camps on a regular basis, providing general, dental, and chest x-ray services. No state-wide health survey, evaluation of farm worker health needs, or development of a comprehensive health plan has been performed.

Texas - Some service by public health agencies and a mobile TB treatment unit. Through efforts of OEO and the Planned Parenthood Association, a health referral system was established in 1970 for Texas migrants. The system has proven fairly successful, processing 2,824 referrals in 1974.

Utah - Adequate health service serving 70% of the total farmworker population.

Florida - Servicing 50% of the farmworker population. A highly innovative health program was begun in South Dade County in 1975. This program-funded through HEW, city-county funds and other sources-provides a comprehensive, family-oriented health program including basic out-patient services, social services, counseling, health education, drug and alcohol treatment, minor surgery and in-patient services for up to 48 hours, complete x-ray and laboratory facilities, and other services. Designed originally to alleviate the heavy patient load at the county hospital, the health program encompasses coordinated satellite clinics, outreach workers, and an intensive transportation system.

Arizona - Some service provided by county health departments.

South - A study of area health problems performed by a private group.

Oregon - CETA 303 program serving as a "broker" for farmworkers in need of health care, taking them to facilities and securing services for them.

Colorado - Experimentation with a health care delivery system utilizing physicians on a military post located in a rural area. Some scheduling conflict was experienced.

Michigan - Difficulty in securing in-patient medical treatment for farmworkers.

General - The emergence of Health Services Administrations as local level clearinghouses to coordinate local health service delivery.

Additionally, some health services are provided to farmworker children who are enrolled in Head Start programs. Such services include physicals, screening tests, immunizations, dental work, and other health services.

General Analysis of Government Health Services For Farmworkers

Originally, the migrant health program was initiated by Congress "in recognition of the failure of existing private health services or government programs to provide adequate health services to the nations' migrant workers.... In 1972, health care conditions for the migrant farmworker still remain critical. (28,p.3) Questionnaire survey responses indicate the situation is still the same with little or no improvement in farmworker health. However, respondents gave a very high rating for health service "usefulness to the farmworker" and noted health second most often as a service program most beneficial to farmworkers. The reason for lack of change is that health programs reach only a small portion of the population they are designed to help, due to a general lack of funds for extended service.

Even though federal, state, and local programs are established specifically to serve the farmworker population, few ever receive services. Several reports substantiate this fact:

> "During 1973, Associated Migrant Opportunity Services (AMOS) estimated that less than 8% of the migrants in Indiana saw

> a physician." In one 14-county area in the state, migrant health nurses provided services for approximately 13% of the migrant population, while in another 14-county area "there are no migrant health care plans or programs in effect." (18,p.37,41,44)

> "Because of limited funding and increasing medical costs, the Migrant Health Act which attempts to provide services to farmworkers is only serving about 3% of the nation's farmworkers." (33,p.17)

> "According to DHEW, there are approximately 1,000,000 migrants and dependents. Also, there are approximately 3 million seasonal farm workers who are eligible for service under this act. DHEW in its testimony estimated that its budget request would reach approximately 284,000 farm workers, or less than 10% of the target population." (28,p.126)

Estimates related to farmworkers in need of assistance range from eight out of ten in Indiana (19,p.37) to one out of six in Texas. (17,p.49) Other random estimates include two studies in Texas, one in which a physician team "stopped and examined children at random [in one labor camp] and almost every child had some preventable physical defect." (35,p.154) The other involved a health team planning to examine only 50 families in-depth through a four-day period, "but were confronted...by over 900 people lining the street around the small clinic in which we worked." (22, p.160) The team examined 1,400 individuals in four, 16-hour days. A third study examined 38 study respondents and found 57% "to have some kind of health problem." (34,p.76)

Analysis of monetary expenditures for migrant health services, compared to the national average health expenditure, reveal the apparent discrepancy in level of care. "The per capita expenditure for personal health services for Indiana migrants was $6.00. Nationally the average per capita expenditure for health services was $250.00." (19,p.37)

In the Joint Hearing before the Subcommittee on Health and the Subcommittee on Migratory Labor, the Senate Committee on Labor and Public Welfare stated that in 1968, $12.00 per capita was spent nationally on migrant health, compared to the $250 per capita national average. Expenditures for federal migrant health programs, budgeted at $24 million for 1975 "are expected to decrease by 20% to $19.2 million in fiscal year 1976...[assuming] an estimated increase in non-Federal funding and third-party reimbursements to offset the 20% Federal reduction." (12,p.39) This premise of available third party reimbursement is seen as an impossibility by many people who argue that third-party revenues are unavailable in rural poverty areas or to farmworkers. One alternative seen by the federal government is the Medicaid program, under which farmworkers, particularly migrants, are presently having difficulty qualifying. (12,p.39) Farmworkers have no employee insurance, and even if reimbursement money were found for services, they do not have the funds to pay for services until they can be reimbursed. (9) One program which noted it did receive supplemental funds from the state department of health noted the limitations of this type of funding which precludes long-range planning and places restrictions on funding utilization. Program participants claim the inevitable result of required third party reimbursement will be a lessening of service to the already health-handicapped and medically disadvantaged farmworker. Even if additional revenues are achieved to make-up this loss, the total program funding level is far too small to make any sizable impact. As stated by the

Senate Committee on Labor and Public Welfare during the Joint Hearing before the Subcommittee on Health and the Subcommittee on Migratory Labor:

> The DHEW estimate of the total cost of providing both comprehensive care and hospital services to the farm worker population eligible under the act was $600 million. Therefore, it is not surprising that in the past with levels of budget requests and appropriations [made]..., it was impossible for the migrant health program to provide comprehensive care to the program recipients. (28,p.126)

Present projected funding levels for the Migrant Health Act might lead one to the conclusion that comprehensive provision of health services to farmworkers is still an impossibility for programs funded under the Act.

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CHAPTER 7

EDUCATION

Children of migrant and seasonal farmworkers often attend school sporadically, drop out early, and achieve a level of competence well below that of the actual grade achieved. In the case of seasonal farmworkers, whose children can attend the same school throughout the school year, this is usually due to the low quality of the education customarily provided in rural America, especially for minority children. In the case of children of migrant farmworkers, education is severely hampered by migrancy itself. Frequent re-registration in different schools over the course of a family's migration, with attendant problems of continuity of education and readjustment to new schools, causes migrancy to impair the development of the child.

The most telling statistic in describing farmworker education is average grade level achieved. This was solicited at each conference, and the information obtained supports prior studies: the average farmworker has a sixth grade education. Specifically, the following information was obtained: Texas - sixth grade, women perhaps a year or two more

Florida - seventh grade

New England - sixth grade

Southwest - 70% have less than sixth grade
75% illiterate in both English and Spanish

South - fifth grade

Upper Midwest - fifth grade, but fourth grade reading level

The transition out of farm labor into higher paying work is difficult without further education than this. Even so, 47% of the respondents to InterAmerica's questionnaire indicated there had been improvement in the conditions of education in the past two years, most of them indicating major improvement.

Educational problems of the seasonal farmworker are felt to be similar to those of the migrant, with the exception of linguistic and mobility-related problems. Education for minority groups in rural areas has long been substandard, and economic conditions often require participation of all family members in the field, whether school is in session or not. In areas where farmwork is done predominately by non-mobile seasonal farmworker families, these factors combine over time to create permanent barriers to provisions of quality education.

Most information obtained relates more to migrants than to seasonal farmworkers, due to the absence of categorical programs for seasonal farmworkers in education.

This chapter describes the current status of education of farmworker children in terms of programs and problems, addresses the relationship between farmworkers' average level of education and their ability to benefit from support and training programs, and indicates educational problem areas in which constructive change is taking place. The chapter addresses the subject by level--preschool, elementary, secondary, higher education, and adult education.

PRE-SCHOOL

Historically, two through six year old children of migrant farmworkers may be left alone in migrant camps while the rest of the family is working in the fields, although sometimes an older sibling stays in the camp with them. Even recent changes in child labor laws which increase restrictions on agricultural work by those under fourteen will have little effect on the children of both migrant and seasonal farmworkers. At an early age, they develop a sense of obligation to work and to raise the level of the family income. (10,p.58)

In 1973, the Office of Education's Title I Migrant Program lowered the age at which children could be accepted into the program's summer projects to three years old. Pre-school children that age and older will be cared for in the school when their enrollment frees an older sibling from day care responsibilities so he can attend school. The advent of the expanded Title I Migrant program, which is funded at a level that permits a large nationwide program, reaches into many locales where it is needed. Conference participants indicated in at least one area that young children have been much more willing to enroll in the programs than in the past. (9)

Since the program provides medical, dental, and nutritional care as well as educational work appropriate to the age of the children, the overall benefits to their welfare are great. This expanded age range that permits service to children who would otherwise be without day care applies only to the summer programs, however. As children enter the regular school grades they may become increasingly susceptible to peer and family pressure to begin working in the fields.

Head Start

The Head Start program is designed to improve the educational opportunities of youths from disadvantaged families by providing a program for pre-schoolers. It has had a distinct impact on migrant education during its existence. The Indian and Migrant Programs Division (IMPD) of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, which administers the Migrant Head Start program, has developed four main models for its use. Two of these are local program models desinged to serve local children in a given community, only incidentally including migrants. These models consist of the traditional model, wherein course content reflects only community-wide perspectives, and the catered model, wherein some content is modified and directed at migrant enrollees specifically. In addition there are two national models designed to meet the needs of migrant children nationwide. These are the prime grantee model, operated for all eligible migrant children within an area where the migrant farmwork seasons are longer than average, and the network model, an innovative program wherein the staff of the Head Start center actually follows the migrants along the stream. (20,p.2) IMPD has indicated that a combination of the latter two has been found to be the most effective method. (20,p.3)

The level of service provided through Head Start is small compared to the need, however. No convenient age breakdown exists for determining the total preschool migrant population, but the estimate of one million migrant farmworkers, utilized in this study, can be used to calculate the population of the preschool age group. A 1971 study in Florida found 15.9%

of migrant family members in this age group. (12,p.9) On a national scale this indicates approximately 160,000 migrant children between one and four years old. By comparison, in October, 1974 the number of children served by the Migrant Head Start program was only 7300. (20,p.2)

Of those conference participants who were asked, all indicated that the Head Start program is beneficial everywhere it is in operation. Of the questionnaire respondents, 58% indicated the program's usefulness was very high. Unmet need for the Head Start program was medium to high, according to 66%.

ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

The ever-increasing pressure to leave school and work in the fields results in a population of school age migrant children which is strongly overrepresented in the lower grades, with correspondingly fewer than normal enrollments in the higher grades. Table 16, using information developed by the National Committee on the Education of Migrant Children in 1971, shows thes clearly. (17,p.30)

TABLE 16

DISTRIBUTION OF STUDENTS BY GRADE LEVEL

(Migrants vs. National Average)

Grade Level	Percent Distribution Migrants	Percent Distribution US Total	Difference (Migrants - US Total)
Pre-kindergarten and Kindergarten	7%	6%	+1%
Grades 1 to 6	71%	50%	+21%
Grades 7 to 8	14%	16%	-2%
Grades 9 to 12	8%	28%	-20%
	100%	100%	

Another reason for this concentration concerns the interaction between the children and the school system in which they are enrolled. Specifically, three factors are at issue here: language problems of early elementary Spanish speaking children, informal criteria used in rural schools to determine the level and quality of education to be provided to farmworker children other than those determined by their individual academic standing, and parental involvement.

Language Difficulties

Many children of migrant farmworkers enter the public schools with little or no useable knowledge of English. This leads directly to failure when school programs are carried out entirely in English. It has been estimated that the number of Spanish speaking migrant children who must repeat the first grade is as high as 80%. (13,p.20) While this seems inordinate, it is reasonable given a setting wherein no smooth transition from one language to the other is made possible. For example, the state of Texas forbade the speaking of Spanish in its public schools for many years. (15,p.36) The US Office of Education has estimated that a child from a Spanish speaking background will be one year behind the national norm in achievement by the time he or she reaches the third grade, and two years behind by the seventh grade. OE adds that more than half of Spanish speaking children drop out of school before the twelfth grade. (21)

Bilingual programs have done much to correct this impediment to learning by providing the necessary transition without implying to the child that either language is the "wrong" one. Title VII of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, enacted in 1967, supports OE's

Bilingual Education Office, sponsoring some \$68 million worth of bilingual programs in public schools in fiscal year 1974. (21) However, many of these dealt with language other than Spanish, and many of the Spanish/English programs were not aimed primarily at schools serving children of migrant workers. Nevertheless, other funding sources exist, including a growing number of state and local governments which have recognized the value of bilingual education. In Texas, for example, 120,000 children were enrolled in bilingual programs of one sort or another in 1974. (15,p.36)

There are many forms of bilingual program, ranging from English as a second language (ESL) which is simply a method for teaching English to persons with backgrounds in other languages, to bilingual/bicultural programs which coordinate the teaching of all subjects in a manner beneficial to the native speakers of both languages and which allows the sharing of cultures in the process. Many educators contend that only the latter, more culturally adaptive programs can effectively overcome the factors that were previously excluding such children as Spanish speaking migrants from receiving a normal education. Conference participants in several user areas indicated that steps are being taken to provide this sort of program but that it is a good deal more difficult to find teachers who are both accredited and have a thorough knowledge of migrant culture than it is to find teachers who simply speak Spanish. (5;9)

Rural Education and the Treatment of Migrant Farmworker Children

A traditional, but difficult to define, problem in the education of migrant farmworker children concerns the ways they are dealt with in schools. Migrant farmworkers often classify these actions as discrimination, but in fact a number of specific attitudinal and cultural differences can be identified that cause the typical treatment. The first of these is the language barrier, discussed above. Ramifications of this problem include the formation of negative attitudes by teachers when they feel they cannot "get through" to a child, degradation by other students for being "different", and early inculcation in migrant children of the belief that they are in fact inherently less competent than non-migrant, English-speaking children.

The consequences of linguistic and cultural differences are also experienced when standardized testing is used to make judgements about the abilities or the progress of students. Migrant children think in a different language, do not know the norms of the area in which their family is working, and have changed schools so many times that they are likely to be far behind on the material being tested. As they may often not be enrolled in the same school at the time both pre- and post-tests are given, achievement is hard to measure. The following charts, depict the overall loss in relative achievement levels in one state. (18,p.3) Note that migrant children fall dramatically below the norm only after the third or fourth grade, by which time many of them are taking on heavy family responsibilities.

There is no ready solution for eliminating these differences except an ongoing concern by educatiors that each student in a school receive the most effective education possible. Lack of sufficient re sources impedes schools from improving educational opportunities for

CHART P

GRADE-TO-SCORE RELATIONSHIP IN READING FOR
MIGRANT STUDENTS IN NEW YORK STATE

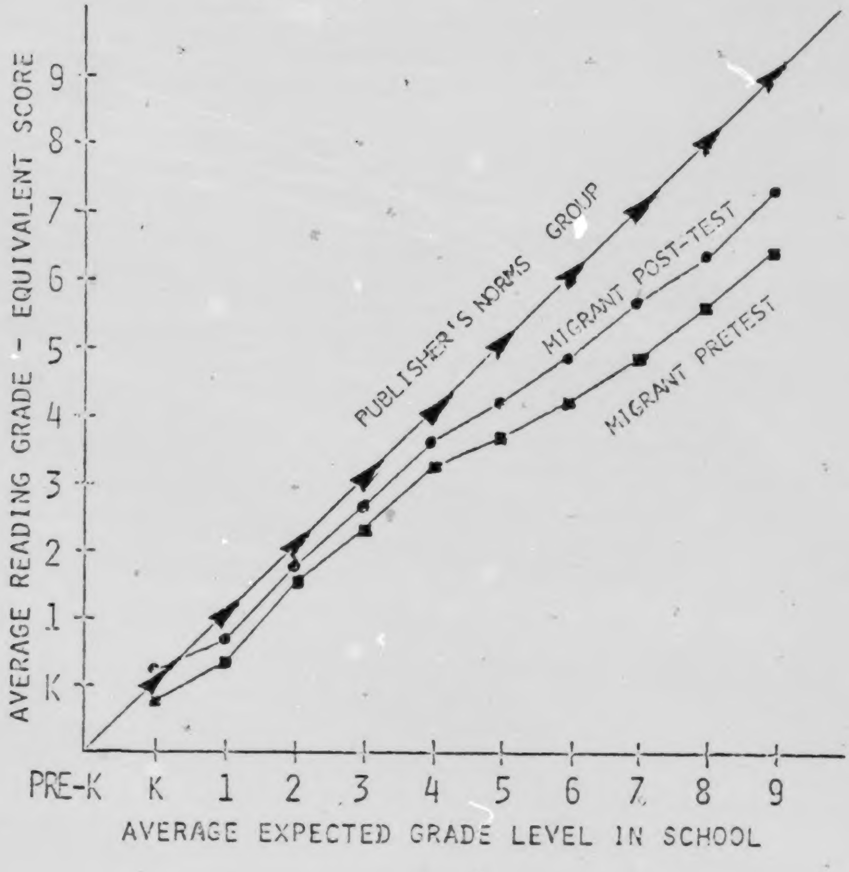
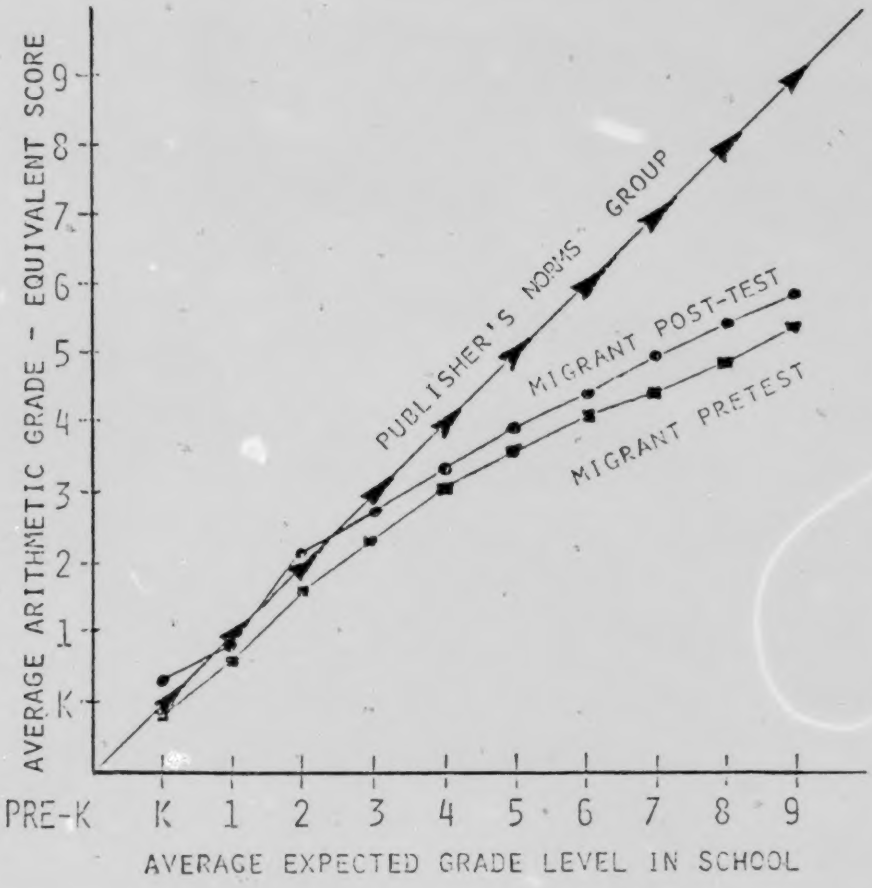


CHART Q

GRADE-TO-SCORE RELATIONSHIP IN ARITHMETIC FOR MIGRANT STUDENTS IN NEW YORK STATE



migrant farmworker children. Fund limitations prevent hiring bicultural teachers from out of state and purchasing books, crafts, and other items which provide a context for the development of migrant children's sense of their own culture.

In addition to these factors, the simple logistical problems of accepting migrants into an ongoing school year program create some attitudinal difficulties that work against migrant children. In the extreme case, their past academic performance, reticence, and irregular attendance have led to the practice of simply placing late-entering migrants at the back of the classroom with drawing materials or in the slow-learner class, apparently on the rationale that they will not benefit from better treatment and will be least disruptive there. (16,p.11)

The Title I Migrant program is administered via state plans drawn up each year, which must specify curricula and procedures for incorporating migrant children into ongoing classroom activities. A relatively low level of minitoring of actual school operations under the plan by either USOE or the state, however, permits this type of situation to persist despite requirements prohibiting such discriminatory treatment. (24) Thus, many migrant children leave school with academic achievement well below the norm for the grade level achieved.

Participation of Migrants in Their Children's Schools

Migrant parents in-stream cannot be expected to become active or even interested in what goes on at the schools their children attend. Their long work hours and their interest in having the children in the field, working to supplement the family income, eliminate any chance of involvement. Even in the homebase areas, however, migrant parents do not take an active role. Their own poor academic preparation, distance from the school, racial and cultural differences, and perceived or actual discrimination all contribute to their lack of interest.

Even since the influx of federal education legislation, which required parental involvement as a condition of funding projects, there has been no significant change in this pattern. The Title I Migrant program, unlike other federal programs to provide special assistance to the migrant and seasonal farmworker community, is administered through state education agencies which fund individual school projects based on an overall state plan. Statewide planning inevitably results in programs less closely tailored to meeting specific local needs. Different communities may host migrants from very different home base areas. Migrant parent representation is therefore the only way to assume that local migrant needs are met by local programs. However, parental involvement requirements are often met through boards of parental advisors at the district or even state level, with no migrant representation or support.

Programs

Two programs already discussed, the Title VII Bilingual program and Head Start, are aimed at alleviating some of these educational problems in specific ways. Two others exist which are attempting to meet these problems in other ways and on a larger scale. They are the Title I Migrant program and the Migrant Student Record Transfer System.

Title I Migrant Program - This program, funded in fiscal year 1975 for $96 million, is designed specifically to provide enriched, culturally relevant education for migrant children in public schools, concentrating on the lower grade levels. The program seeks to identify and meet the needs of migrant children, with heavy emphasis on providing continuity of instruction and devoting special attention to the needs of each individual child. The program's effectiveness lies in its formula of concentrating on educational problems and complete supportive services to assure that children are free of physical problems that may impede their education. (22) The state plan method of administering this program, and the autonomy from direct federal prescription of curriculum, have resulted in development of many innovative and effective approaches. Often, these benefit staff as well as the children, such as the Mini-Corps program in California for training and using former migrants as teacher aides. However, centralization and dissemination of replicable programs has not occurred effectively, so the good programs often remain relatively localized. (24)

Migrant Student Record Transfer System - Each year since 1973, a portion of the Title I Migrant program's funds have been set aside for the operation of this record transfer system, which is a nationwide centralized computer data bank containing school records of migrant children. When migrant children enter a new school in a northern state during their families' migration, their teachers can request their records from the MSRTS facility and in one to two days receive the information. This permits construction of a relevant course of study for migrant children, even for the brief period he or she may be at a school. Students' records are placed in the system when they leave their homebase schools at the start of the season. A migrant child's records are carried by the system for five years after the last migration, to assure coverage should a settled out family go back into the stream. The system has several million children registered, servicing over 8000 school districts in 47 states as of late 1947. (15,p.34)

As it contains both academic and health records, the system can also facilitate proper treatment of health needs over the course of their educational career. While some users of the system have contended that it often is used to pass along prejudicial biases of teachers, a recently improved standard record form has been devised, which objectifies student achievement to a greater extent. (23) Also, the system's utility has been increasingly recognized. In 1975-76, it became the school enrollment vehicle which will be used to determine a school's eligibility for the Title I Migrant program. (19,p.41)

In concert these two programs consitute a significant federal intervention for the improvement of the education available to migrant children. They are backed up by a number of state run programs, such as the California Master Plan for Migrant Education, the Texas Child Migrant Program, and the Florida Comprehensive Compensatory Education Program.

For several years, Texas has operated a special seven month "Migrant School" within its system, whereby some schools with a large number of migrant children operate a special curriculum of longer hours for a shorter period of the year for these students, in addition to their regular curriculum. However, a conference participant who attended one school operating under this program indicated that it used the school's oldest textbooks and lowest seniority teachers. (9)

Most states do little or nothing to meet the special educational needs of children of migrant and seasonal farmworkers; these two groups are but a portion of the educationally disadvantaged whose need prompted the federal Title I program. Nevertheless, local abuses of Title I funds have existed for years and state legislatures have resisted efforts to obtain passage of state funded programs for farmworkers. Some states are reluctant to provide adequate education to any of their populace. Conference representatives from Alabama and Mississippi indicated their two states could vie for the worst state in the country in education. (6)

SECONDARY EDUCATION

It was shown in Table 14 that most migrant children enrolled in school were in the elementary grades. Most of the programs for migrant education are concentrated there as well. Consequently migrant children in secondary school face the prospect of being even more in the minority, with few other migrant students enrolled with them, and fewer programs designed to acknowledge and address their needs. Since the education they receive in elementary school prepares them poorly for further academic work, they are in many ways at a considerable disadvantage if they decide to continue school work. Accordingly, many migrant youths do not.

The Drop Out Problem

An informal poll of participants at the conferences indicated that in most areas, the average migrant has no more than a sixth or seventh grade education. (3;5;8) Migrant manpower program representatives stressed that that refers to grade level achieved, not skill level. They cited the frequent need to compensate for this difference in matching applicants to jobs or job training slots; if a sixth grade skill level was needed, for example, they would only consider those who had completed ninth or tenth grade. (3;5;8) Many of the vocational training schools into which these projects attemp to place their enrollees have tenth grade education level requirements for enrollment. In general, therefore, few migrants qualify. Most migrant manpower projects, however, are too small to operate their own vocational training facilities on the same scale as those available externally, so they cannot remedy this problem with resources at hand. For more information on migrant manpower training programs, see Chapter 4 of this report.

Chart R on the next page readily shows the degree to which migrant children leave school before the twelfth grade. (14,p.11-19) Perhaps the strongest evidence that this dropout rate stems from the combined effect of migrant farmwork described above, and the problems that all farmworker children encounter in schools is indicated by a comparison of the number of farmworker children in school versus children whose fathers are employed in other occupations. (11) (See Table 15) Note that the percent of farmworker children not enrolled is even greater than the percent of children not enrolled whose fathers are unemployed.

Although some of the programs already discussed in this chapter affect secondary school education as well as elementary, none of them is directed at the particular goal of increasing the number of migrant children who stay in school through high school graduation. If persons in this age group are migrating with their families, they are certainly going along as workers, not as dependents. In many cases, children of migrant families join crews and migrate independently from their families as young as thirteen or fourteen years old. If they are not migrating, economic necessity still often forces them to leave school to find work.

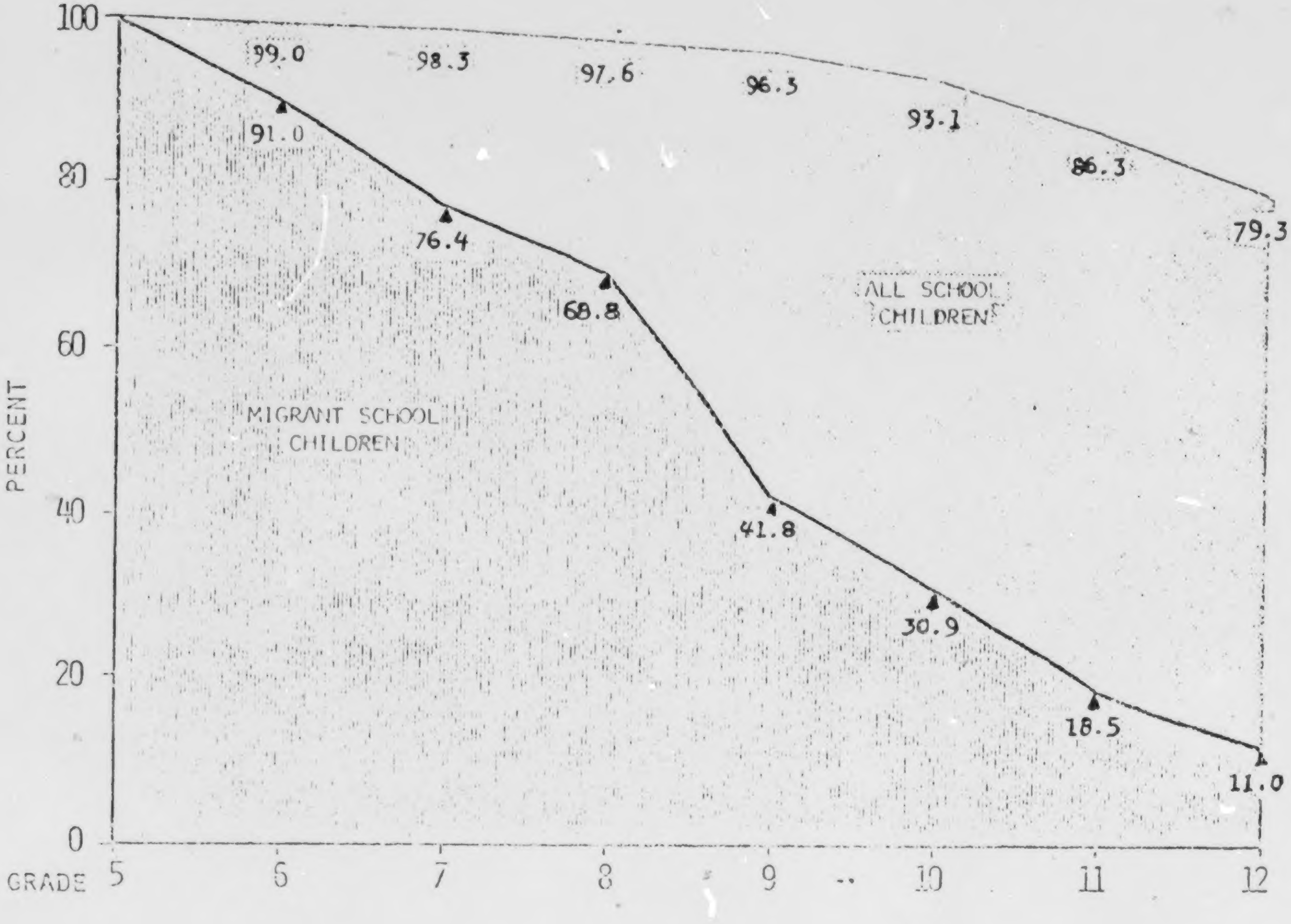
TABLE 17

Children Not Enrolled
By Occupation of Father
(Ages 7–17)

Occupation	*Population*	*Not Enrolled*	*% Not Enrolled*
Farm Laborers	470,296	32,837	7.0
Unemployed or Not in Labor Force	2,340,164	139,962	6.0
Laborers (excl. farm)	1,682,843	80,035	4.8
Operatives	6,436,719	244,139	3.8
Farmers and Managers	1,079,634	37,180	3.4
Service	1,942,896	66,255	3.4
Craftsmen	7,933,212	232,143	2.9
Managers, Administrative (excl. farm)—Self-employed	765,694	20,726	2.7
Clerical	1,984,874	45,100	2.3
Sales Workers	2,166,758	41,467	1.9
Managers, Administrative (excl. farm)—Salaried	3,781,284	64,922	1.7
TOTAL Living with Father	36,002,877	1,087,223	3.0

CHART R

PERCENTAGE OF CHILDREN ENTERING SUCCESSIVE GRADES IN SCHOOL, MIGRANT CHILDREN AND ALL CHILDREN (GIVEN 5TH GRADE CHILD)



Only a few programs, including some under the Title I Migrant Program, address the needs of the secondary migrant and seasonal farmworker student. These often provide vocational training. (5;9;24)

Conference participants in both home base and user states indicated that career counseling for farmworker students in secondary schools was a problem area. The participants stated that counselors were usually overloaded, and thus concentrated their efforts on students who were seen as college bound. Because farmworker students were seen as not academically equipped for college, counselors rarely met with them. When such meetings did occur, farmworker students were almost always told that they should concentrate on vocational training curricula, not academic college-preparatory courses. Participants indicated that counselors were often poorly informed concerning alternative careers to these two, such as paraprofessional training via junior college. (5;8;9)

Programs

General Equivalency Diploma - As a result of the tendency to drop out early, the programs that exist for this age group tend to be of the remedial or vocational type. Basic to education programs for the secondary school dropout is the General Equivalency Diploma (GED) program which leads to the award of the GED certificate, the equivalent of the normal high school diploma. Programs for studying toward and obtaining the certificate are offered by a wide range of agencies, including some migrant manpower projects. These projects usually utilize only portions of the GED course of study, however, due to resource limitations, in order to prepare clients for further job training. For example, migrants being prepared for vocational training in carpentry must have competency in basic arithmetic; hence, they may be included in remedial or GED-directed math classes for a portion of their training period.

High School Edquivalency Program - One program exists that is designed specifically to take secondary school migrant and seasonal farmworker student dropouts, put them through the complete GED course, and assist them afterward in finding employment, vocational training, or in entering college. This is the High School Equivalency Program (HEP) which was operated by the Office of Economic Opportunity until the Migrant and Seasonal Farmworker Division was moved to the Department of Labor. DOL continued these programs as a portion of the CETA 303 migrant manpower program until January of 1976, at which point the funds set aside for the HEP program were discontinued. Funding for these programs after June, 1976, will be awarded on a competitive basis against all proposals for migrant manpower training projects. HEP was felt by many to have significantly helped to improve the lives of those who were enrolled. However, its small size and high per-student expense (due to provision of room and board) created a perspective of low cost effectiveness, especially in the face of the size of the population in need. Between September 1972 and August 1973, only 1500 students participated in the HEP program. Of these, 997 (or 66%) received GEDs; 234 (or 16%) were placed in jobs; and 270 (or 18%) dropped out. (16,p.16)

HIGHER EDUCATION

According to the U.S. Office of Education, only 10% of migrant students enter high school, and of those entering, only 10% graduate. (22)

Comparable information for seasonal farmworkers is not available. Assuming a college entry age migrant population of 120,000, this overall 1% high school graduation rate makes it clear why there are almost no migrants who have completed higher education degrees in this country. (26) However, migrant children have expressed increasing interest in entering college as indicated by information from at least one conference (4), and a very clear demonstration that parent preferences parallel those of such students was shown by a survey in 1973 or migrant families in ten states. (14,p.VIII-14)

Table 18

RESPONSES OF NUMBERS OF PARENTS TO THE QUESTION,

"What would you like to see your
child do when he finishes school?"

	Number	Percent
Job	43	11.1%
Military	10	2.6%
Vocational Training	49	12.6%
College	233	59.9%
Job (Agricultural)	10	2.6%
Other	44	11.3%
Totals	389	100.1%

Two federal programs, the College Assistance Migrant Program (CAMP), and the Tuition Assistance Program (TAP), have aided some of the few migrant and seasonal farmworker students who are interested in obtaining higher education.

CAMP is a supportive services program for migrant and seasonal farmworker youths in college. It provides counseling, tutoring, and financial assistance. The four CAMP projects in the country are operated through colleges and universities directly. The program pays half of a student's first year expenses, with the sponsoring institution paying the other half that year, and the full cost each remaining year. Over 80% of CAMP enrollees are graduates of the HEP program.

TAP is a smaller, direct financial aid program for migrant and seasonal farmworker students in college. It is funded independently of educational institutions. Both CAMP and TAP receive their funds through the Department of Labor's migrant manpower program, but TAP is offered only through manpower projects, while CAMP has received separate funding directly from the Department of Labor. Further, only a few of the manpower projects offer the TAP program. As a federal program, it can only be funded year to year, which leaves students in a tenuous position. The Department of Labor has placed both the CAMP and TAP programs in the same category as HEP, to be funded in the future only on a competitve basis against manpower project proposals. It is expected that this will mean the demise of all three, unless current efforts to have them transfered to the Title I Migrant program in HEW are successful. (24,25)

ADULT EDUCATION

The migrant manpower projects offer some classroom work related to GED study; they also provide other education which includes direct instruction in areas of vocational training. Project budgets and DOL guidelines prohibit offering studies in non-vocationally related areas such as social studies, enrichment courses, or hobby crafts. However, conference participants indicated that no other source of adult education is available to migrants. Migrants' lack of funds and time for such pursuits, their distance from urban centers, and the social stigma of migrancy are presumably part of the reason for this lack of programs; inadequate outreach by educational institutions may also be involved.

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CHAPTER 8

HOUSING

The critical need for adequate housing for farmworkers has emerged as an outstanding problem in this study. The following discussion will focus on the particular housing conditions facing migrant and seasonal farm laborers. The situation will be analyzed in terms of supplying sufficient housing for them, assessing the role of housing in migrant and seasonal farmwork, and developing alternative ways to reduce the problem. [illegible] primary documentation source for this study was data provided through the Housing Assistance Council (HAC). Information from the Rural Housing Alliance was not utilized as it was found to parallel HAV data. (18)

MIGRANT IN-STREAM HOUSING

Quality

Traditionally migrants traveling throughout the country have lived in labor camps on or near the property being worked, in dwelling units provided by the grower. Frequently this housing consists of only one room per family, without electricity or plumbing. Growers often see migrant camp housing as part of the wage they pay farmworkers. This form of payment is recognized in standard contracts with employers which specify that housing is to be provided for farmworkers as a supplement to wages. The standard contract that was developed by the Department of Labor of Puerto Rico is used for all Puerto Rican migrants working annually in the New England states. This contract specifies standards for housing as well as its provision. (4) Such contracts are by no means universal, however. The type of housing provided to the migrant in-stream may vary considerably in quality. A recent study by InterAmerica, prepared for the Kansas Department of Economic Development, assessed the quality of migrant camp housing in that state as illustrated in the table below. (15,p.37)

Excellent - no visible defects	0%
Good - visible defects, no major repairs needed	11%
Fair - visible defects, major repairs needed	19%
Poor - visible defects, too deteriorated to repair	69%

The situation is similar in almost all areas visited by migrants in their travels. Low quality of most labor camps is a reflection of their age. The current study found evidence of only a few cases of new labor camp construction in the entire nation: several North Dakota growers purchased house trailers in a recent year; one consortium of farmers opened a new camp with federal assistance to replace an old one in Oregon; and publicly sponsored camps have been opened in Florida and Colorado. (2,5,7,9) In short, little new construction is taking place. On the other hand, owners have closed a substantial number of labor camps in recent years, rather than comply with more stringent migrant camp health inspection procedures which were instituted recently. These closings will be discussed at greater length below.

The consequences of the generally low quality of the housing in the camps and the recent closings include large scale overcrowding and accelerated deterioration of the camp units. In many areas, large numbers of migrants must look elsewhere for shelter when they arrive. Migrant camp housing has never been plentiful; migrant families are often used to camps that may require an entire family to live in only one room. Considering that family housing should have separate sleeping, cooking, and living areas, this practice already represents large scale overcrowding. Moreover, during peak season, the number of persons per unit may go much higher. The Kansas study which was conducted during peak season, found a mean household size of 7.8. (15,p.3) Including those sleeping outdoors or in cars and trucks, using the bathrooms and cooking facilities of a unit, the number of persons per household ranged from 1 to 65. Seven percent of households had more than 24 persons. (15,p.4)

A study done in South Carolina in 1971 backs up this data. There, 91 out of 366 migrants interviewed (25%) were living in housing units that contained eight or more families. (17,p.16) The current study has found that wherever migrant housing inspections have been performed recently, it is not uncommon for at least half of the units inspected to be cited for violations of housing standards. Conditions at the camps, as indicated by items above, indicate why this is so. The statistics from South Carolina were derived only from those camps that the project's interviewers were permitted to enter. A number of growers in the state, according to the report, refrained from using the State Employment Office to secure migrant employees because housing provided for such employees is required to meet government standards. Such growers generally provided poorer housing and refused entry to the project interviewers. Information presented from the South Carolina study, then, is from the better migrant camps in the state. In addition to overcrowding, it documented the following other indications of the quality of migrant camp housing:

61% had no sanitary facilities;
79% had one room per family;
62% had dirt floors. (17,p.16)

In the current study, questionnaire respondents were asked to indicate agreement or disagreement with the statement "Farmworker housing here is okay." They were also asked to indicate whether housing had gotten better or worse or not changed in the past few years. Of the 69% of respondents who indicated that farmworker housing in their area was not okay, 17% said that housing had gotten better in the past few years. Most respondents, even of those stating that housing was not adequate, felt that it had gotten worse (56%) or stayed the same (27%).

A 1974 study of migrant camps in Indiana also presented evidence about the low quality of migrant housing. Some of the violations found in those camps include the following: (13,p.46ff)

- Occupants forced to open sliding metal doors to get ventilation.
- Urinal not hooked up.
- Large holes in floors, ceilings and walls.
- Water source located in the middle of a hog pen.
- Trash scattered throughout the camp.

Approximately 150 camps out of 187 inspected were cited for code violations; 118 of them were cited for five or more. (13,p.48)

Camp conditions have prompted moves in recent years by some local migrant service and advocacy organizations to seek closure despite the evident consequences. In the Southwest conference participants estimated that 85% of camps in the region had been closed, most of which were privately owned. Even the county-run camps were being phased out. The consequences have been rent increases, high rent deposits, and new prohibitions on children in apartments. The same pressure and consequences were noted in California. Municipalities have been reluctant to alleviate the situation by building camps themselves, due to the high construction costs and maintenance necessary to meet regulations.

In the South most farmwork is done by seasonal workers although migrants pass through on their way north. Conditions in the camps for migrants are worse than elsewhere. Camps in South Carolina were prohibited from opening in 1975 by county inspectors due to their condition. (6) The counties are unable to maintain them, and their offer to lease them to the local migrant project for $1.00 each per year was turned down due to the estimated cost of bringing them up to standard--$500,000. (6) In Georgia, according to a conference representative from that state, there are no camps. (6)

Occupational Safety and Health Act

According to information obtained through this study the recent camp closures may have reduced labor camp housing by as much as one-third.* These closures were inadvertently brought about due to Congressional concern for the on-the-job welfare of workers nationwide. Since 1972, provisions of the Occupational Safety and Health Act (OSHA) have provided for federally authorized inspections of employee housing, and in this case, migrant and farmworker camps. All farms employing 500 or more persons during the course of the year are susceptible to OSHA inspection. (23)

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*InterAmerica estimate derived from conference information.

Due to variations in the level of coordination between federal and state government and insufficient federal manpower to implement the many areas of employment that come under OSHA purview, enforcement of its provisions with regard to migrant camps have not been comprehensive. Conference participants, from many states at several different regional conferences, stated that they were not clear as to which government agency, if any, was responsible for inspecting migrant camp housing. (3,6,9) Many states had migrant housing inspection guidelines on their books prior to OSHA, either in an advisory or a mandated capacity, but many did not. Further, OSHA's intention from the start was to work with state governments in serving as an agency for monitoring employee health and safety. In cases where there are no previous guidelines in a given state, OSHA is willing to work with a state in determining whether its own role should be an advisory one. A state may also choose to undertake development of a state level OSHA office, or to let OSHA apply federal guidelines for inspection in that state from that point forward. As of late 1975, 23 states had developed plans for direct state implementation of mandated guidelines as indicated under OSHA. (23) With regard to migrant labor camps, the determination of who should make the inspection and of what inspections should consist may also be complicated by lack of coordination between state health departments which are concerned with sanitation issues and departments of housing which are responsible for monitoring building standards, construction, and maintenance. National inspection information is not kept in one central location. Computerized listings of the national OSHA office cover only 28 states, as the other 22 states maintain full state control and keep inspection records within their jurisdiction. (22)

A further complicating factor in recent years has been that OSHA guidelines have only been in draft stage. Though several drafts have been proposed, no final version has been accepted and given the force of federal regulations. Inspections that have been made have, therefore, had to rely on state standards where distinctions were clearly required, although proposed OSHA standards have been used as a guideline for standard development and enforcement.

In at least one state, this combination of a strengthened inspection process and the prospect of enforcement of more stringent standards in the future prompted several growers to invest in new housing in the form of mobile homes to replace the units in their labor camps at present. (9) This was seen as only a stop-gap solution by the conference representative from that state. It represents one of the few instances of new labor camp housing in the entire nation. In most cases, the threat of increased inspections in the future results in a closure of camps.

State and local government reaction to OSHA has been one of the reasons for inconsistent enforcement of the Act. In one area covered by a conference, there were two states represented that had taken diametrically opposed positions with regards to OSHA. Both had pre-existing standards and inspection procedures for migrant housing that were more stringent than the proposed standards being used by OSHA. In Iowa, the state standards and procedures were left intact, while in Minnesota, the unit of government assigned the responsibility for inspection withdrew from that task. Instead, it deferred to the newly arrived state level OSHA personnel, though it realized the level of monitoring and enforcement would drop considerably since this staff could only respond to complaints and not initiate any inspections. (9)

The increased visibility and organization that OSHA has the potential of bringing to the inspection process is still far from actually improving housing for migrants in-stream. In addition to the large problem of closure vs. repair, more immediate problems of the inspection process itself are a substantial impediment to amelioration of the situation.

One of the areas subject to negotiation between federal and state inspection agencies is the timing of inspection in the course of the year. The states with the strongest standards require that inspections be made prior to occupation by migrants in a given season, with sufficient time before occupation to permit necessary repairs, if indicated. Since OSHA is usually administered only on a complaint basis, many states in which OSHA is the only inspection agency inspect only during occupancy, if at all, as that is the most likely time for complaints to be made. Some states have regulations requiring that inspection be made only at the time of occupancy. (9;13p.55) This last regulation presumably exists to protect the occupant. In the case of migrant labor camps, though, it prevents substantial repairs from being made which are often needed at the time of occupation, effectively postponing repairs until the next season. It permits the grower to wait until the next season's inspection, again only during occupancy, and effectively institutes a cycle which permits him not to make repairs but to continue housing migrants. In most areas, the period during which the migrants are present is too brief to develop sufficient support to accomplish permanent change from this ongoing cycle of disrepair.

This is why so few states have firm regulations regarding inspection and repair prior to occupancy.

Enforcement of sanctions is not always easy, even after violations have been found. Inspectors are not always aware of local codes and regulations, and local laws often are not stringent enough to serve as effective sanctions against the grower. Sanctions against growers found in violation are often minimal or non-existent. In one state, waivers to permit operation of camps can be granted by telephone, despite inspection reports showing many violations. (9) Further, even if a camp is closed, farmworkers may continue to live in it with tacit permission from the grower. In one area, farmers who do not have work for farmworkers will still allow the latter to stay in the housing that is there, with the understanding that the farmer will do nothing to maintain it. A conference participant from the area described told of a farmer who saw a shack on his property so dilapidated that he warned children playing nearby that it might fall on them, only to discover that there was a family living in the shack. (6) In a different case, a farmworker organization brought suit against a grower who had been cited but who had refused to close the camp or make repairs. The case came up on a docket which also included a parking violation by one of the members of the organization bringing the charge. The fine for both offenses was $25. (9)

The first impact of OSHA was during the 1973 farmwork season, when some camps were closed during the season itself. In 1974 numerous inspections were made before the season began, so that repairs could be made prior to the arrival of migrants. OSHA itself can close camps only when immediate danger exists to life. The first year, the closures that occurred were in this category. The second year, however, the intention was to allow time for repairs to be made. The resulting large scale closures by growers themselves was highly unexpected. After the consequences of OSHA inspections became more evident, migrant service agencies stopped passing complaints from farmworkers along to local OSHA compliance officers. In at least one case, the director of a health project emphasized that the staff should tell the director and not go directly to the grower or to OSHA themselves if a violation was mentioned by a client. It was clearly stated that this was done to prevent investigation of the complaint, since the likelihood of a voluntary closure would be so great. (4)

Where OSHA is federally administered, enforcement is performed through a network of Comprehensive Safety and Health Officials, each of whom has an estimated 10,000, mostly non-agricultural, job sites to monitor. Each is required to concentrate his efforts on four "target industries" (non-agricultural) so there has been little emphasis on migrant camp inspection, notwithstanding the above-mentioned consequences. From OSHA's inception through the summer of 1975, such inspections were performed only when complaints were filed. Most of the inspections therefore were at the instigation of migrant service agencies. Since mid-1975 compliance officers have begun initiating their own inspections on a random basis in response to increased pressure for OSHA to deal with migrant camps. (23)

Even without comprehensive enforcement, OSHA has become an effective device for pointing out inadequate conditions. It has not, however, provided any avenue for improvement of these conditions. There is at present no means for requiring growers to repair their camps as opposed to simply closing them which is frequently their response.

It was indicated above that this result was an inadvertent consequence of the inception of OSHA. However, the magnitude of its effects on the farmworker is much too large to ignore. One conference participant, referring to the actual conditions confronting the migrant families in areas where camps have been closed, said "I am not sure that a seven-month pregnant woman is any better off in a car than she would be in a house that may not have had a bathroom." (5)

The value of the program of monitoring and enforcement of federal guidelines for the safety of workers in America cannot be underestimated. At present, however, the program used to implement this policy has proven, for the migrant farmworker population, more harmful than beneficial.

Supply

While the conditions of migrant housing are poor, the inadequate supply of it is an even more critical problem. The following points discuss some of the ways in which the instream migrant housing stock is inadequate.

Location - While grower owned camps are conventionally on land near the fields to be worked, their closure may require families to have to commute a significant distance. Finding such alternative shelter and/or sites is now a problem when migrants arrive in an area for work. In one example from a regional conference, it was indicated that families were now regularly permitted to sleep in the basement of the building which houses the migrant manpower project offices. (9)

Price - Most grower owned camps are rent-free, partially in lieu of wages. Studies have found an average rent of zero to $5 per week. (3;5;17,p.16) On the other hand, most new camps, which are being built by local farmer co-ops or housing authorities, will have to charge fairly high rent. Construction material and upkeep costs are so high that a rent must be charged that is simply beyond the means of most farmworkers. In one example, the state built several new camps on the site of old camps. At the old camps, a $10/month rent was charged, but at the new camps, the rent was $120/month. (5)

Safety - Crumbling shacks, faulty wiring, defective heaters, lack of insulation, and inadequate foundations are common in most camps migrants use during the season. Many migrants stay north well into late fall and winter and have only small electric heaters provided by the growers for warmth in the uninsulated housing units. The unpredictable weather patterns of the midwest are often not considered in building and maintaining migrant housing. In at least one state, trailer parks are required to have tornado shelters by law. Migrant camps however, do not. (9) Basic environmental hazards are also more severe in migrant camps than in normal housing. Many inspection reports have documented the hazards to be found in migrant camps, including old cards, standing water, broken glass, trash, and rubble strewn about the camp, and other basic hazards to life and health. (13,p.49)

Demand

Shifts in the make-up of the migrating population have affected the types of accomodations they require in many cases. For example, due to the greater number of single males traveling in crews, necessitated in many cases by economic conditions prohibiting the additional expenses of family travel, accommodations required are no longer the same as they were when whole families traveled together. In the northeastern states the housing provided for migrants is predominantly of the variety that can accommodate single individuals in the form of barracks housing, effectively prohibiting travel by the entire family. (4) A stream comprised largely of single males changes many aspects of farmworker life. For example, many environmental hazards of the camps do not pose as severe a threat to life. The difficulties that migrant children encounter in upstream schools are eliminated.

Changes in crop planting patterns have also affected migrant streams. With these recent shifts, such as increasing planting of seed corn in Iowa and the Midwest and more sweet corn and grapes in the Northwest, migrants are leaving some areas permanently and working in others for the first time. In these new areas there is often no migrant housing available and migrants must take what they can find. Subsequently this necessitates finding rental housing in nearby small communities. (5,9)

Information presented elsewhere in this report shows that the overall number of migrants in the stream has increased in the past few years, and that the composition has changed. Because of mechanization and the general impact of a slowed economy in many areas, the number of migrants coming each year is the same or greater but they stay a shorter period and work fewer hours each day. Consequently, the demand for migrant housing per hour of work performed has risen considerably over the past three years. This forces growers to consider housing many more migrants than they previously did for the same amount of work.

The Farmer's Home Administration (FmHA), in an internal study in 1973, indicated an expected leveling off of the migrant population at 70,000 by 1979. (19,p.2) Even if estimates of present migratory levels are somewhat inflated due to current economic conditions, recent trends suggest that there will be an ongoing demand for housing for migratory workers in the future. This stands in opposition to the position taken each of the last three years by the FmHA that the declining migrant population justifies a truncation of programs for farm labor housing.(11)

MIGRANT HOME BASE HOUSING

Many migrants own their own homes in the home base areas where they spend the winter. Most however do not. They rent or live with family, or are homesteaders. The lack of employment in the home base area practically guarantees both the inability to pay upkeep costs on a house and the ineligibility for federal programs to assist in construction or purchase of even moderate homes.

Participants at the conferences pointed out that farmworkers would like to own their own homes as much as anyone else, but are just given much less opportunity to do so. (5,8) One practice followed by many landlords and developers in these areas is the option of renting with intent to buy.

Missing even one monthly payment voids the purchase option, forfeiting the equity put into the house at that point by the family. Farmworkers thus often end up buying a house many times over. (5)

Other developers offer complete plans and materials for building a home oneself over a period of time that will seemingly ease the total cost though they charge very high interest rates and use similar forfeiture clauses as that mentioned above. Conference participants indicated examples where builders will help farmworkers inflate their income statements to ease or facilitate attaining a loan to purchase a home, even though this invariably leads to forfeiture or default on the loan. It was also indicated that many developers in the home base areas built all electric homes, maintenance costs of which are now prohibitively high due to the rapidly rising costs of electricity. (5)

One great difficulty in securing adequate housing for migrants in their home base areas is migrancy itself. The costs of owning or renting a home in one place continue even when the occupants are elsewhere, and costs of housing must be met instream as well. Neither type of housing, home base or instream, is suitable for dual occupancy during the season they are not occupied by migrants. In large part this is due to variations in the timing and length of the growing/harvesting season from year to year. This reduces the practicability of proposed plans to find persons willing to transfer out of their winter homes each year to accomodate migrants. One attempt to provide such housing in Utah encountered another obstacle. In order to keep costs realistic, it was necessary to locate the units in a spot central to all farmwork locations.

The resulting travel costs and time were too great for the migrants. (7)

Housing and the Settle-Out Process

The DOL Migrant Manpower Program (CETA 303), as discussed elsewhere in this report, is the largest source of federal funds going to the migrant and seasonal farmworker population at this time. A major emphasis of this program is to encourage farmworkers, especially migrants, to acquire skills that will permit them to stop migrating, assume permanent residency, and improve their economic situation through year-round employment in a non-agricultural job. (10,p.28982) Housing is one of the largest roadblocks to this process. Although the program permits payment of monies to enrollees for relocation and housing expenses, housing is often simply not available. Further, for the migrant, housing expenses are still over and above home base housing costs. Many of these programs are in urban areas. Enrollees who are sometimes relocated there may encounter high rentals and stringent lease requirements. In any case, undertaking the settle-out process, whether with the aid of the Manpower Training Program or not, is risky to migrants, especially considering the current state of the economy. Migrants, who are generally used to living from hand to mouth, must find an area in which to locate, find employment there, secure shelter for their families, and generate an income sufficiently quickly to meet all ongoing expenses, as the likelihood of their having savings is very slight. Welfare programs may have residency requirements which exclude recent arrivals, and credit may be very difficult to establish for the newly settled-out migrant.

The primary concern in the settle-out process, aside from actual employment, is housing. The term settling-out connotes putting down roots, establishing permanent residence. If migrants are unable to secure adequate housing even in their home base areas, the chance is slight of their adopting a different lifestyle which requires an even greater expense for housing, and which holds even less chance for a predictable income than does migration.

SEASONAL FARMWORKER HOUSING

Many of the above problems stem from the low income of the migrant farmworker. The same situation affects the seasonal farmworker as well. A significant difference between migrants, seasonal farmworkers, and other rural poor individuals, is that seasonal workers, while they do not migrate, are still largely dependent on agricultural labor, which is unskilled and intermittent. The irregular income they obtain often makes them ineligible for financial assistance for purposes of home purchase, improvement of credit rating, or even simply renting a home.

Seasonal farmworkers constitute by far the bulk of the farmworker population. In many ways, their situation is more tenuous than either that of the migrant or of the year-round farmworker. Many seasonal farmworkers do not enter either of the other two categories, because neither migrant nor year-round work is not available, because they have a prospect year after year of a high paying but short term job which requires them to stay in the area for the remainder of the year, or because they have a sufficiently firm relationship with local growers to provide employment, albeit not full time, on various farms throughout the various seasons of the year. Either way they have neither the permanence of the year-round farmworker, which often permits establishment of credit, nor the access to employment throughout the entire harvesting season that migrant workers are ideally, if rarely in practice, able to secure.

Sometimes growers will provide housing on the farm for seasonal farmworkers although they do not work for one grower year-round. (6) In such cases, which is more likely to happen when there is little or no need for year-round farmworkers, they may even become the farmer's work supervisor charged with overseeing migrants and going out of state to recruit. Seasonal farmwork is by far the most prevalent in the South. Several cases were mentioned at the Southern conference of growers individually securing funds to upgrade the housing on their land for seasonal workers. In one case, the improvements necessitated a substantial rent, so the grower raised the salary paid to the seasonal workers to enable them to afford it. (6)

This does not apply to many seasonal workers, however, who continue to live in their own homes while working the farms of nearby growers each season. The problems which seasonals face with regard to the supply of housing are considerable. Even if they obtain the opportunity to own a home, upkeep costs and the necessity of proper home maintenance, with which an impoverished seasonal farmworker may not be familiar, are major roadblocks to the successful acquisition of equity in a home. In many of the states in the South, programs have been instituted which have improved the supply of seasonal farmworker housing. The Self-Help housing program, which will be discussed in more detail below, has permitted a portion of seasonals there to have a sufficiently large and steady income to be eligible to build improved housing for themselves. In Florida, some of the more expensive migrant camps that have recently been built charge rents that prohibit migrants from living in them. They have become homes for seasonal farmworkers in the area who have off-season non-agricultural incomes to supplement their farmwork earnings and hence can afford the camps. (2) In most places however, the housing situation of seasonal farmworkers is the same as that of many of the poor in rural America. Their small and intermittent income and their dependency on agricultural work completely block their attempts to break out of the cycle of farmworker poverty.

GOVERNMENT PROGRAMS

Government programs to provide improvements in housing for farmworkers have never been large scale, and in recent years, they have been de-emphasized even further on the grounds that the farmworker population is a diminishing one, eventually to be replaced by mechanization. This rationale fails to acknowledge the facts that immediate housing needs are critical and that regardless of the pace of mechanization there are many crops that cannot be harvested except by hand, guaranteeing a stable farmworker population into the future.

The scarcity of programs in existence to benefit the farmworker's housing situation can be illustrated by two examples. First, only one state government in the United States currently is sponsoring a major program for improvement of housing for farmworkers. Second, the U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development has no programs targeted to benefit improved housing for farmworkers in America. This lack of attention is a result of the immense expenses of housing programs and the highly specific housing needs of the farmworker population, especially migrants, the orientation of HUD toward urban rather than rural problems, the political and economic invisibility of the migrant, and the general fact that in this country, housing has yet to be seen as a public responsibility.

The introduction of the poverty programs of the 1960's was the first occasion on which the special needs of migrant and seasonal farmworkers were addressed to any extent by the federal government. Areas such as housing or education received only secondary attention, however, partly because of the massive amount of resources that would be required to accomplish any significant change in these areas, and partly because of the perception that social services and manpower development needs were more pressing. There were provisions funded in the earlier programs which continue today in the Department of Labor's Migrant Manpower Program, for compensation of relocation and housing costs during the training program.

Until the inception of the Self-Help, Farm Labor Housing and Home Ownership programs under the Department of Agriculture's Farmers Home Administration, there were few programs that could be used to improve farmworker housing in rural areas.

Farmers Home Administration (FmHA)

The Farmers Home Administration, funded in fiscal year 1975 at a level of approximately $4.5 billion, operates some 30 programs for the improvement of farm and other rural area housing, including site improvement, water and sewer improvement and direct construction. (21) While only one of these programs, the Farm Labor Housing program, is targeted directly at the housing needs of farmworkers, although even that program is for the use of the farmers or local housing authorities not the farmworker, other programs of the agency with similar eligibility requirements have been used from time to time in meeting the housing needs of farmworkers. The agency makes funds available through both grants and loans, targeting its programs toward projects designed to benefit low income individuals and families and senior citizens. A typical requirement for all programs, for example, is that the applicant prove that funding for the proposed project by unavailable from any other source at interest rates he can afford. The three main areas of funding of the FmHA include:

- The agricultural credit portion, which contains programs such as soil and water loans, grazing loans, Indian land acquisition loans, recreational, emergency, operating and home ownership loans;
- The rural development area, which includes programs such as water and sewer loans, community facility loans, business and industrial programs, and grants including water and waste facilities improvement, rural community fire protection, and the grants portion of the farm labor housing program; and
- The rural housing area which includes the low income housing programs, very low income housing repair programs, rural rental and site development programs, and the loan portion of the farm labor housing program. (21)

Of these programs, by far the largest single program is the low income housing program, funded at a level of $2.07 billion in fiscal year 1975. (21) This program, operated under Section 502 of the Housing and Community Development Act of 1949, provides loans down to 1% interest loans to low income families with steady incomes for the purchase and development of family housing in rural areas.

FmHA operates its programs through a network of county supervisors and state supervisors, through whom all applications are processed and by whom eligibility is determined. In some cases, program eligibility has been determined by the county supervisor working in concert with a local review committee, although this practice has been discontinued. Eligible applicants for Farmer's Home assistance are public or private organizations or committees.

Of the variety of programs mentioned above, only four can be considered realistically suitable for improving the housing of farmworkers. These include the Farm Labor Housing program, the Self-Help Housing program, the Low Income Home Ownership program, and the Rural Rental Housing program. Sponsorship of these programs varies. Farm Labor Housing project sponsors are usually individual growers or non-profit organizations, such as growers' associations. Self-Help housing sponsors are organizations acting on behalf of groups of families Home Ownership program borrowers are individual families. Rural Rental Housing program sponsors are owners of multi-unit rental housing projects. The basic problems inherent in these programs that severely limit their usefulness in improving farmworker housing will be discussed below.

In general, the problems that have been encountered in using FmHA programs for improving farmworker housing fall into two main categories: eligibility on the one hand, and suitability and scale of programs on the other.

Eligibility - Problems of eligibility stem from two main facts basic to the operation of FmHA: (1) Lack of assistance in application, and (2) exclusionary applicant criteria. No assistance is provided by FmHA through either the central office or its county agents in the preparation of the complex documents necessary in each application for funds, other than meeting with the family or sponsoring organization to discuss the project and receive the paper work. Resources must be expended in assembling the information that are often beyond the means of sponsoring organizations in rural areas, especially among very poor populations such as farmworker individuals, families or organizations. The Self-Help Technical Assistance program, designed to facilitate the development and construction of groups of homes built cooperatively under the Self-Help provisions of the 502 Home Ownership program, is the sole exception to this among FmHA's programs. In the past, Housing Development Corporations which were funded through OEO to facilitate improvement of housing for low income groups, operated in a number of rural areas and helped meet this need. Few of these remain, however, and usually the only available groups that have the necessary resources and expertise for applying for these funds are usually municipal governments or local housing authorities. Such organizations often have priorities other than improvement of farmworker housing, however. This leaves the farmworker sponsor without a means of applying, unless he turns to one of the national housing groups funded by the government to assist committees in obtaining housing, such as the Rural Housing Alliance or the Housing Assistance Council

This procedural problem cuts down the size of the pool of potential applicants for FmHA funds considerably. For the farmworker population, the possibility of applying and being found eligible is further reduced to almost zero by the explicit eligibility criteria set out for the programs administered by FmHA. The primary limitation is the requirement that applicants have a steady income which is used as a proof of financial stability. Farmwork in general, and certainly migrant farmwork in particular, does not generate a steady income. Further, the steady income required must be sufficient to repay all projected regular payments, taxes, and other expenses normally associated with home ownership once the loan is made. (20) In most cases farmworkers do not have such levels of income; even the 1% interest rate on repayment of these loans is considered too high for farmworkers to afford. (11)

Beyond proof of low but steady income, eligibility criteria for FmHA programs are somewhat broad. The county FmHA agent has considerable discretion in determining eligibility. Conference participants indicated a number of examples in which county agents acted in what was felt to be a discriminatory manner. (5,8,9) As a federal program, FmHA is prohibited from discriminating by race or color, but the local county agents must work with local permanent residents and organizations who may not often share this perspective. The flyer on the Home Ownership Loan program specified the following eligibility requirements: Applicant families must (1) be without decent, safe, and sanitary housing; (2) be unable to obtain a loan from private lenders on terms and conditions that they can reasonably be expected to meet; (3) have sufficient income to pay house payments, insurance premiums, taxes and maintenance, other debts and necessary living expenses, and (4) possess the character, ability, and experience to meet loan obligations. (19) Between the income requirements (number 3) and the leeway granted to the local agent (numbers (1), (2) and especially (4) here), it is possible to see why few farmworker-sponsored applications for FmHA funds are approved.

Suitability and Scale of Programs - The second major problem concerning FmHA programs is in regard to the suitability and the scale of the programs offered. Neither the Farm Labor Housing program nor the Self-Help Housing program is totally suitable to meeting the needs that farmworkers in need of adequate housing may have. This may be due either to the nature of the program or the nature of the life style of farmworkers.

In the Farm Labor Housing program, for example, an internal FmHA administrative decision was made a number of years ago that funding priority would be given to projects in which 75% of the housing would be year-round housing. This was done to assure that projects generate rent sufficient to repay significant portions of the cost of housing constructions. (11) This essentially eliminates the possibility of extensive farm labor camp housing construction in user areas, where the labor season is only three or four months of the year and where the need for migrant farmworker housing is the most acute. As a result, the program is used almost entirely to fund projects in home base areas, except for those approved before the fuling.

Another example of suitability problems concerns the Self-Help Housing program. Under this program, groups of individuals desiring to build their own homes may assemble a joint application, hire a supervisor for the group construction activity, and apply for FmHA funding for assistance in construction of their homes through loans and grants to help in the purchase of materials and land. Construction then commences on a group basis, with the member applicants performing many of the necessary construction tasks on the houses. While the dollar cost to the family may be less than that of a home purchased commercially, the time, the energy, and multiple rent that may be involved can in fact make this method more costly to the family in overall terms.

The coordinating bodies for implementing Self-Help programs only rarely exist, and considering that the cost may be greater and the length of time necessary to build a home is longer than through conventional means, the program has been used only minimally. The most notable example of the use of the Self-Help program for farmworker housing improvement is in California where Self-Help Enterprises, a non-profit organization, has successfully aided low income families in construction of 1500 homes through this program. (11) A number of Self-Help projects have also existed in the South and in Texas, but on a much smaller scale. In the North, attempts have been made to use it, but timing the programs so as to avoid construction lapsing over into the long harsh winters has limited its effectiveness.

Perhaps the single largest problem affecting the utility of the FmHA programs in meeting the housing needs of migrant and seasonal farmworkers is the scale of the programs. The largest of the programs, the 502 Low Income Family Home Ownership program, was funded in FY 1975 at a level slightly over $2 billion, but it is a program intended to make home ownership avialable to all low income individuals in rural areas, by no means limited to farmworkers. The Self-Help Housing program uses funds that are a part of the 502 low income home ownership program, expending $12.4 million in Fiscal Year 1975. The Self-Help Housing Technical Assistance program, which serves as an adjunct to Self-Help Housing, expended $5.6 million that same year. (21) Farm Labor Housing, the only program directly intended to improve housing for farmworkers through a combination of loans and grants, was funded at a level of $13.1 million for Fiscal Year 1975. (21)

When these figures are compared to estimates of the resources needed to adequately house just migrant farmworkers, the insufficiency of these programs becomes evident. In Fiscal Year 1975, projects were funded for assistance in the construction of 1742 camp units. (21) According to the InterAmerica study of farmworker housing needs in Kansas, 310 new units and 641 replacement units are needed at present in that state alone, merely to provide housing where none presently exists and to replace the worst housing now provided. Using an estimated construction cost of $20,000 per unit designed for housing a family of six, the average migrant farmworker family size, the estimated cost of providing these units is $19 million in Kansas. (15,p.71) The FmHA 1973 internal study cited above indicated that approximately 130,000 replacement units of farmworker housing were then "urgently" needed. (19) Using the same computational assumptions as those used in the Kansas Study, the cost of this housing would be $2.6 billion.

FmHA programs do not provide subsidies for operation of migrant housing. In light of the limited ability to pay and the seasonal occupancy of housing, a subsidy from some source is necessary to bridge the gap between rent provided by the occupant and operational expenses. This could amount to as much as 10% of the construction cost per year on an ongoing basis simply to maintain migrant housing at existing levels of safety and adequacy. (15,p.71)

It is clear from FmHA's own figures that the gap between resources made available for improvement of farmworker housing and the demand for this housing is very large. According to one estimate, at the present rate of funding FmHA will meet all of the needs for improved housing through its programs in 120 years, not including deterioration in the meantime. (11)

The Farm Labor Housing program was set up during the 1960s to include migrant workers in the national housing policy established in 1949 for "the realization as soon as feasible of a goal of a decent home and suitable living environment for every American family." (16,p.2) As administered, however, the goals of the program differ considerably from that policy. According to a flyer put out by the FmHA, the goals of this program are:

> "Providing decent housing for domestic farm labor fills a primary need for shelter in many agricultural areas, helps balance out the facilities of rural communities and makes them more desireable places in which to live. The construction of the housing also provides employment for carpenters, masons, plumbers, and others and boosts sales of construction materials and household furnishings." (20)

However, even these goals appear to be in conflict with the actual intention of the FmHA. For each of the past three years, FmHA has requested the Congress approve no monies for the Farm Labor Housing program, and the Self-Help Technical Assistance program. In each case, however, Congress has overridden their request and provided funds. (11)

The Housing and Community Development Act of 1974 may provide some atlernative solutions. Section 8 provides subsidies for housing units once completed and requires that 20% to 25% of funds expended under it be in rural areas. As the Act also broadens the sponsoring categories that can be served by the FmHA to include public agencies and provides incentives to encourage development of state housing financing and development agencies, it is possible that the state role in improving rural housing will increase in the next few years. (11) These new incentives may prompt more states to adopt state operated programs for improving the housing of farmworkers.

While fewer than half of the respondents to the questionnaire indicated the availability of housing programs in their area, the great majority of respondents indicated that the programs were useful and needed. As especially high proportion (95%) of respondents from user areas indicated the utility of the Farm Labor Housing program.

State and Local Programs

State and local governments, with the sole exception of Colorado, have no programs for development of farmworker housing, limiting their involvement solely to inspection and licensure. Even these functions are not performed in all states where farmworker housing exists. Conference participants indicated a wide range of enforcement levels regarding these functions in their localities. States varied from those in which none of the conference participants were aware of the agency which performed inspections to those in which there are substantial programs for inspection and licensure, including enforcement. Many of those programs have successfully incorporated the implementation of OSHA into their ongoing operations. (5,6,9)

Responsibility for the monitoring of the operation of farm labor camps also varies widely across state governments. In many cases it is a county function; in other cases it is the responsibility of the state health department; in still others it is the responsibility of the state department of housing. Some cases exist in which coordination between the government offices vested with these responsibilities has been obtained. However, very few states have comprehensive programs for inspection and licensure of migrant farmworker camps which include appropriate enforcement of sanctions when violations are found.

InterAmerica has just completed a series of training courses in labor camp inspection from the health standpoint for migrant health project personnel. The courses were aimed primarily at para-professional health aides. The purpose of the conferences was to improve the ability of the staff of farmworker organizations to understand and rectify or cope with deficiencies in migrant camp health conditions. While referral of recognized deficiencies and code violations to responsible regulatory agencies is of course the responsibility of those detecting violations, discussions elsewhere in this chapter have indicated that this can often result in closure of camps rather than improvement of conditions. Under this situation it is doubly important that those working with residents of labor camps be able to cope with health hazards that are found in them. Many of the areas covered in such a conference go beyond topics that can be monitored via ongoing state camp inspections due to resource constraints. Thus, improved local project monitoring capability serves a vital purpose in improving the health conditions of migrant camps. For example, in addition to sanitation and epidemiology concerns, a considerable amount of conference time was spent on pesticides--including recognition, proper treatment of poisoning, and recourse to regulatory agencies.

Without a state by state canvass it is impossible to determine how many states have what types of enforcement procedure. The fact, mentioned earlier, that by late 1975, 23 states had filed plans for implementation of OSHA at the state level which were accepted by USDOL, does not indicate that those states have thorough inspection and licensing procedures.

The one state that has a strong program for improvement of housing for farmworkers, above and beyond licensing and inspection, is Colorado. Since 1973, it has had a program through the state Division of Housing to provide matching grants for up to 50% of construction costs of rural housing units. Since its inception, the rural portion of these funds has been used almost exchluively to develop housing for migrant farmworkers. The annual allocation has been $500,000, and over this period approximately 275 temporary dormitory units for migrant farmworkers have been constructed. This program has succeeded in raising 1 1/2 to 2 times the amount it allocates for purposes of housing construction, in substantial part in matching funds from growers associations. (12)

Colorado's ability to successfully undertake this venture is due to state-wide housing development corporation Colorado Housing, Inc., to assist in preparation of applications, unusually cooperative rural local housing authorities through which to channel projects (23), and growers who see the value to their own interests of improved farmworker housing. The combination is important; in many states a local farmers group acting as a housing authority may decide to build a camp on their own, but without the HDC or a strong farmworker organization, the plan may not be carried through to completion, and the design may not reflect something that can actually meet the needs of farmworkers. The overall statewide strategy permits better coordination of projects between farmwork demand areas and a substantially greater capability of raising matching funds.

At present, Colorado is the only state with such a program; and a large state role in direct funding of such farmworker housing programs in other areas lies in the future. Conference participants in a number of areas indicated that ongoing attempts were being made to obtain state legislation for improved inspection procedures and for adoption of a standardized farm labor contract similar to that used by the Commonwealth of Puerto Rico which specify housing requirements and wages in writing prior to the beginning of each season. (5,9) These efforts have met with little success, but state and local level efforts to push for adoption of such procedures can be expected to continue.

POSSIBLE WAYS OF IMPROVING THE FARMWORKER HOUSING SITUATION

The standard contract used by the Puerto Rico Department of Labor to establish working conditions for migrants coming into the New England states and other parts of the east coast is at present the strongest means for controlling and monitoring the conditions under which migrant farm labor is conducted. While no states are at present considering adoption of similar state standardized contracting procedures, migrant organizations of several areas are pressuring employers to develop and use standard contracts that can be enforced. The Puerto Rico contract is currently under legal attack in the New England States and a recent law suit has held that the contract is unfair to growers. (4) In the Midwest, however, contracts utilized by private corporations are viewed as exploitative by farmworkers and their representatives. (5,9) The number of seasonal farmworkers who are covered by employment contracts each year is not known. No information was received on this subject through any of the data collection methods used in this study, but it is assumed that the number is quite low. Thus current evidence suggests that contracting includes far less than half of all farmworkers, although the proportion is much higher within the migrant farmworker population at which contracting is primarily aimed. Until explicit contracting is adopted more widely, farmworker employment arrangements will continue to be informal and verbal in nature with all attendant risks of default by either side.

Another major avenue toward improving the housing conditions of farmworkers constitutes a proposal, put forward in several forms, for property tax incentives for growers to improve migrant housing conditions on their land. While this policy has yet to be enacted by any government, it is the only proposal put forward for a clear economic incentive for improvement of farmworker housing. Concerns about its effectiveness include estimates showing that the degree of tax incentive and corresponding loss of municipal revenue necessary to significantly improve conditions in farmworker housing would be greater than governments are willing to expend. Further, it is not clear that any incentive through property tax alone would be sufficient to induce growers to undertake improvements of their housing. (11) Whether the ultimate burden of such a program would actually fall on the migrant or not is another ramification of this proposal that remains unclear and has in some cases kept advocacy organizations from supporting its inception.

Many farmworkers use pickup trucks in their migration, often with a canvas or metal canopy, or even a camper body, on the back to enable them to sleep in the truck as well as use it for hauling. The campers can be taken from one work area to another, sleep four to six persons, and often require only water and sewer hookups to provide complete sanitation facilities. While their initial cost is moderately high, the fact that many farmworkers already have pickup trucks for use in their migration, plus the savings generated by not having to pay rent in-stream, may make this an attractive option for more widespread use as an intermediate solution.

The day to day housing problems of farmworkers, especially migrants, have reached critical proportions. Only recently has the federal government been willing to turn its attention to the problems of maintaining adequate housing for the low income population in this country. Large amounts of money will be needed to adequately meet the emergency housing needs of the farmworker population, far larger than the present amounts being spent in an attempt to meet the emergency food and medical needs of this population. A solution to the housing problem, tied inextricably as it is to the health and the general working conditions encountered by farmworkers, is necessary if the life situation of this group is to be improved.

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CHAPTER 9

SUPPORTIVE SERVICES

Supportive services are those programs which allow a person to maintain at least a minimally adequate standard of living; they include Food Stamps, Medicaid, day care, outreach and referral, emergency assistance, legal aid, and transportation. Although farmworkers experience times when obtaining this assistance is critical, their access to programs has been limited by a combination of funding cutbacks, eligibility regulations, and service delivery patterns. Conference participants and questionnaire respondents alike underscored the importance of supportive services.

NECESSITY AND INACCESSABILITY OF SERVICES

When questionnaire respondents were asked to name the programs most needed in their area, they named supportive services more often than any other type of service. In fact, it was almost twice as likely to be mentioned as health services, the next most often mentioned program. When asked to name the most beneficial services, supportive services ranked a close second to health.

Almost all of the conference participants talked about the extent to which supportive services were needed in their areas. The availability of some types of supportive services has significantly diminished, although the demand for them is as high as ever. (3,4,5,6.8,9)

The questionnaire sought to determine the need for and usefulness of the supportive services that have been available to farmworkers. Specifically, respondents were asked about day care, emergency assistance, outreach and referral, transportation, and legal assistance. As shown in Table 19, over two thirds of the respondents rated the usefulness of each of these services as high or very high; over two fifths of the respondents rated the existing need for the services as high or very high.

TABLE 19

RATING OF SERVICES IN TERMS OF NEED AND USEFULNESS

	Percent of respondents rating service high or very high in:	
Service	Need	Usefulness
Day Care	46%	77%
Emergency Assistance	47	81
Outreach and Referral	47	85
Transportation	42	77
Legal Aid	59	67

To determine the need for service in general, respondents were also asked to agree or disagree with the statement, "There is a program for just about every need that the farmworker has." Seventy percent were in strong or moderate disagreement with the statement. Thus, not only does a continuing need exist for the supportive services that are provided, but the farmworker has some needs for which there is no programmatic solution.

Eligibility

Given this feeling of high need and usefulness of services, it was important to know whether or not farmworkers had difficulty in being declared eligible for the available services. Respondents were asked whether or not farmworkers had difficulty being declared eligible for services, with ratings ranging from 1 (no difficulty) to 5 (much difficulty). There was a fairly even distribution of responses, as depicted in Table 20.

TABLE 20

RATINGS OF DIFFICULTY IN BEING DECLARED ELIGIBLE FOR SERVICES

	Respondent Ratings (by %)				
Type of Program that Respondent is Associated With	No Difficulty			Much Difficulty	
	1	2	3	4	5
All	21	14	24	18	23
CETA	17	19	17	25	21
Migrant health	21	10	36	10	23

Respondents from CETA 303 projects were more likely to think farmworkers had difficulty in qualifying than were respondents from migrant health projects. However, when asked either to agree or disagree with the statement, "Local welfare offices often turn down farmworkers for services because they say the farmworker isn't eligible," 62% of the respondents were either in strong or moderate agreement with the statement. One may surmise that in responding to the first question they were thinking of farmworkers qualifying for the services of the respondent's agency; in contrast, the second question asked specifically about the local welfare office.

Two conclusions can be drawn from the responses to these questions. First, it appears to be more difficult to be certified eligible to receive services from the welfare offices than it is to be certified eligible for specific migrant programs. Second, CETA criteria seem more stringent than migrant health program criteria.

Finally, respondents were asked to indicate the percentage of programs of which farmworkers were aware. No quite half of the respondents felt that farmworkers were aware of 60% or more of the programs available.

In sum, a general picture emerges of farmworkers and their access to services. They have a high need for services, but not all needed services are provided. Furthermore, even if services are available and a farmworker is aware of them, he or she is likely to have difficulty qualifying for them.

Problems in Getting Assistance

Both migrant and seasonal farmworkers have problems getting supportive services, but the very fact of migrancy causes some problems which the seasonal farmworker does not face. In this section, the specific problems confronting migrants are discussed first, followed by the problems facing all farmworkers.

Since the in-stream migrants are non-voting temporary residents of the community, they are both psychologically and geographically isolated from the community in which they work. There are no officials elected to serve their interests; the communities where they work do not encourage migrants to stay; and they are outside of the community's information network. Migrant service organizations are often the best information resources that migrants have, and they are not necessarily available in all of the work areas.

Counties are rarely prepared for the influx of migrant workers, and they are not likely to provide special assistance to migrants. Questionnaire respondents were asked to agree or disagree with the following statement, "If a person is a farmworker, he or she gets special help from the county." Seventy-six percent disagreed strongly or moderately. This indicates that county service agencies neither remain open extra hours for farmworkers, nor provide bilingual personnel for non-English speaking farmworkers, nor add other services to help when the influx of migrants arrives in an area.

A lengthy qualification process poses another bureaucratic impediment to migrants seeking assistance. There are sometimes several stages in the process of applying for services--making an appointment, submitting an application, and being determined eligible. If each of these is very time consuming, a migrant may leave an area before any service is delivered. Migrants may also miss services if localities run programs with limited enrollments, since the programs may be filled by the time migrants arrive, thereby excluding them. Finally, Mexican American migrants are sometimes asked to prove citizenship before services are delivered. (5)

Some problems are common to both migrant and seasonal farmworkers. For instance, welfare officials have at times misrepresented regulations or given misleading or inaccurate interpretations of the regulations. For example, the director of the Food Stamp program in Indiana testified before the Indiana Advisory Committee of the U.S. Commission on Civil Rights that he interpreted migrant home ownership in another state as grounds for disqualification under federal regulations (13,p.60). That is contrary to federal regulations.

Furthermore, although the income of a student under 18 is not to be included in the income of the family for purposes of determining Food Stamp eligibility, "Indiana officials have instead adopted the position that they will include the child's income in the family income unless a grower or crew leader notifies the Food Stamp office of the exact amount of the child's earnings" (13,p.61).

Farmworkers who are not aware of the actual regulations are very likely to believe such officials. As a result, such farmworkers often do not receive services. On the other hand, if a farmworker is aware of the true regulations, the process of correcting the error may be too intimidating to undertake.

Finally, local governments indicate their perceptions of the importance of supportive services by the way they choose to spend General Revenue Sharing funds. This money was given to localities in order that the money could be spent on local priorities. The Albuquerque conferees indicated that most of the funds in their area are going into capital improvement projects such as roads, bridges, and courthouses. One conferee indicated that some counties' revenue sharing funds are too small to have any type of impact, much less in social areas. Political considerations demanded that monies be spent on visible programs rather than on social programs because the political rewards for the latter are low. (7)

PROGRAMS

Food Stamps

The Food Stamp program was initiated in 1964. Since 1974 it has been available in all areas in the country, replacing the Food Commodity Distribution Program. Although USDA sets Food Stamp regulations, the program is administered by state and local welfare offices, which certify households as eligible.

Food Stamp agencies must provide any person with an application upon request, and must accept the application when submitted. The head of a household may designate another person as an authorized representative of the family for purposes of application or eligibility interview, and any member of the family may use the Food Stamps to purchase food. Of additional importance to migrants is that the family need not have a formal or conventional kitchen in order to qualify, which in-stream migrants are not likely to have.

Ideally, a farmworker should be able to go into a Food Stamp office, fill out an application, and be certified eligible. However, farmworkers run into several types of problems. First, the eligibility interview may take several weeks for scheduling. Second, documentation or verification of income may be required, although farmworkers often do not get wage stubs. If a farmworker has no pay verification, a Food Stamp office may use the income projection method. There is no accurate way to project a farmworker's income, since work is dependent on the weather and crop conditions. One family's projected income was $800, but because of bad weather and harvesting conditions the family made $7. They were left without their allotment and had to borrow to feed the family. (16,p.36)

If someone wants to contest the eligibility ruling of an office, they are entitled to do so. Food Stamp regulations require a hearing and action within sixty days. (18,p.16) By that time, however, a migrant family can easily be gone. In addition, although the federal regulations require the processing of an application within thirty days, it can take from two to four weeks to get an appointment with the welfare office in order to submit an application. (13,p.62)

Another factor causing difficulty is that a total month's allotment must be purchased at one time with cash. This means that a family must have that amount of money saved in order to purchase the Food Stamps.

The questionnaire asked respondents to agree or disagree with the statement, "Very few farmworkers get Food Stamps in this area." The responses were inconclusive. One fourth of the respondents strongly disagreed with the statement, and one fourth strongly agreed. The remainder of the respondents divided almost evenly among moderate agreement, neutrality and moderate disagreement.

One possible reason for the even distribution of responses is that some respondents understood the question to mean, "Over a year's time, very few migrants get Food Stamps in this area," in which case, one would expect strong disagreement with the statement. However, if the question were interpreted as applying only to the work season, one would expect respondents to agree with the statement, given the difficulties involved in obtaining Food Stamps.

When respondents were asked to list the most beneficial programs to farmworkers, Food Stamps was the third most often mentioned of 18 programs, following health and day care. When asked to list the most recognizable programs, Food Stamps was the second most frequently listed of the 15 programs mentioned. It ranked at the bottom when respondents were asked to indicate the most needed program, indicating its almost universal presence throughout the country.

Welfare and Medicaid

Welfare is a catch-all phrase usually including Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC), Old Age Assistance, Aid to the Permanently and Totally Disabled, and Aid to the Blind. These programs are administered under the Social Security Act, as is Medicaid. A substantial portion of the funds are federal (50 - 78%) with states making up the balance. (19,p.19)

If a state has a Medicaid program, those persons who qualify for the above mentioned welfare programs automatically must be covered by Medicaid. The consensus seems to be that migrants rarely receive these program benefits. (17,p.65) The Aid to the Permanently and Totally Disabled does not cover a significant portion of migrants, nor does Aid to the Blind. As mentioned in the chapter on demographics, few migrants and seasonal farmworkers are over age 65; thus, they do not get Old Age Assistance. Migrants are often together as a family unit, so unless the state in which they are residing has an Unemployed Fathers program, farmworkers do not receive AFDC.

Only two statistics regarding receipt of these types of assistance were found. One study showed that only 5% of the migrants interviewed received any type of public assistance payments and that of those who did, the majority were receiving disability assistance. (14,p.14) Another study attempted to find out the percentage of farmworkers who know about various types of assistance, whether they applied for the assistance, and the percentage of those who received the assistance. Only 53% of the sample was aware of Aid to the Blind or Aid to the Disabled; of those who were aware of the programs, 19% applied for the service; and the base was too small to estimate the percentage who received service. The sampled farmworkers were even less aware of AFDC. Of the 43% who were aware of the services, 23% applied for service; and the base was again too small to estimate the number who received the service. (12,p.61) No studies were found which gave this type of information about seasonal workers specifically.

Although farmworkers often do not qualify for Medicaid automatically as recipients of welfare programs, they can do so under the "medically indigent" classification which allows states to extend benefits to people who are in need of medical care which they cannot afford. This is a state option, however, and not all states have it. In 1975, only 32 states had a medically indigent program. (20,p.1)

Since the cost of a medical emergency could consume the total annual income of a farmworker family, it is important that a farmworker have some access to assistance. According to the questionnaire responses and the conferees, Medicaid is not providing this assistance. When asked either to agree or disagree with the statement, "A farmworker can get Medicaid pretty easily here," an overwhelming 74% either strongly or moderately disagreed with the statement. Almost all conferees who commented on Medicaid said it is very difficult to get a farmworker certified as eligible for Medicaid.

This is especially discouraging in that health care is perceived by the respondents to the questionnaire as very important. When asked to list the most beneficial services to farmworkers, health care was listed more often than any of the other services; 41% of the time. When asked to name the most needed services almost 20% of the responses were health care. Health is not to be confused with Medicaid, in that the health problems of migrants stretch far beyond the limits of securing Medicaid. (See Chapter 6 on Health)Without it, though, migrant and seasonal farmworkers must either secure other resources or do without health care.

Legal Aid

Legal aid is a unique supportive service. A court decision endures as precedent, while other supportive services are easily rescinded. Decisions are universal; other services benefit individuals. Legal aid has been available to farmworkers through legal aid offices formerly funded through OEO and now administered by the Legal Services Corporation. These organizations were the ones which, during the 1960s and early 1970s, initiated lawsuits of vital concern. The right of access to camps, minimum wages, enforcement of housing codes, and discrimination within the Employment Service were all subjects of legal services lawsuits.

In addition, legal aid offices brought suit on behalf of farmworkers who had been unjustly treated by their employers. In cases in New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Florida, crew leaders have been charged with holding their crews in involuntary servitude. (11:16,p.15;15,p.3)

Except for lawyers associated with farmworker programs, legal aid offices have been the only source of legal counsel available to farmworkers, since the cost of a private attorney is so great. Perhaps some of the longest range benefits have been brought through class action suits, which bring relief to large numbers of people. The ability to bring class action suits has been severely limited by a recent Supreme Court decision which requires all affected parties to be notified of the lawsuit. It is obviously impossible to notify all seasonals or all migrants or a lawsuit which affects them; thus, while individual suits may be brought for the relief of an individual or small group, broad ranging relief is not realistically accessible through class action suits.

Another Supreme Court decision limited public interest lawyers' ability to involve themselves in public interest cases. The Court ruled that attorneys could not recover fees when winning their suit unless the law under which the suit was brought specifically allows for the recovery of attorney fees. Since few of the public interest laws have this language, fewer cases of this type will be brought.

Migrant and seasonal farmworkers have two particular problems with legal assistance. First, not all areas have a legal assistance lawyer to handle cases. Second, the judicial process often takes a long time. If the case involves a migrant workers, the migrant may be gone before the case comes to trial. Often cases are dropped or not undertaken for this reason.

Little was said directly about legal aid in the conferences. One of the southern participants indicated a lawyer was on call for serious problems, and another participant, also from the South, said there was a lawyer currently working on a case involving the provision of services to migrants. (6)

Only 47% of the questionnaire respondents indicated there were legal aid services available in their areas. This was the lowest service provision rate of any of the supportive services. Fifty nine percent of those responding indicated there was a high unmet need for legal services, and 67% gave legal aid a high usefulness rating. When asked to list the most recognizable services, questionnaire respondents did not list legal aid. This invisibility is probably due to two factors. First, legal aid does not address immediate physical needs, and second, only a small percentage of farmworkers come into direct contact with the lawyers. It takes months to bring a case to court, and it can be months or even years after the decision before the effects are really felt.

Day Care

Day care is needed by many farmworker families. It provides a safe, clean, healthy place for the children to be during their parents' work hours and allows the parents to work without worrying about their children. The most effective programs are those that are open from the early morning hours (some starting as early as 6:00 am) until after dusk when the parents finish work.

Day care programs often exist in the work areas, although they are more likely to exist in urban areas than in rural areas. All too often there are too few programs to take care of all of the children who need this service. For example, 80% of the questionnaire respondents indicated that there were day care programs operating in their areas, but over 40% indicated that there was still an extensive unmet need for it. When asked to list the programs that were needed in their areas, day care was the most frequently mentioned supportive service. It was also the most often mentioned of the supportive services when respondents were asked to name the most beneficial programs.

Day care is provided from several sources. It is operated as a private business or it is provided by CETA 303 as a supportive service, by churches, or by state governments. In some instances, 303 programs have money earmarked for purchase of day care slots from other sources, since they cannot always provide and administer the services themselves. One conferee said that although their project had money for this purpose, they were unable to purchase any slots since there were no programs available in the area. (6)

The migrant children who are outside of day care are either left in the care of an older sibling, or taken into the fields to be cared for by their parents, or else a parent stays in the camp to take care of the children. None of these solutions is entirely satisfactory. The older sibling, although used to responsibility, is required to take on a responsibility that is usually reserved for adults. The fields, on the other hand, are unsafe places and the dangers of farm work are intensified for children who are oblivious to hazards.

The conference participants remarked that day care was a valuable form of assistance for farmworkers. One conferee reported it was the only program in his area that offered farmworkers any benefits (7). Others, usually from rural areas, noted that there were few day care centers in operation in their areas. The participants from the Northwest indicated that the amount of available day care had increased but that it was not enough to keep up with the rise in the number of children. In Illinois the state put a priority emphasis on day care for low income people and ran the program year round (3). This presented a problem for migrants who were unable to place their children in a day care program when they arrived in an area because it was already full.

One final problem revolves around transportation to the day care center. If parents have to provide transportation, sometimes to a distant city, then someone must take the time out from the fields and from work both to take the children to the program and to pick them up again in the afternoon. In terms of lost wages, this can be a significant hardship for parents. One conferee mentioned that the day care center in his area provided transportation only within the city limits, thus excluding farmworkers from this transportation service. (3)

Outreach and Referral

One of the main problems of farmworkers is not knowing what services are available, where to apply, what the necessary documentation will be, what the hours of services are, and what the office hours of the agency are. This type of information can be given to farmworkers by people doing outreach and referral service. These specialists in an area's system of welfare and other resource programs know where to go for help, what is available, and how to get it. They have a foot in both worlds; that is, they know where the farmworkers are, what their needs are, what services are available in the community, and how to get them. Too many times, farmworkers go without assistance only because they are unaware of where and how to get it.

The availability of outreach and referral workers, whose primary interest is farmworkers, has decreased over the past few years. Farmworker programs used to be able to hire persons whose specific job was doing outreach and referral. It is now more difficult to get funding for these persons. Programs can have a person on staff whose job is doing outreach and referral work, but some feel constrained to concentrate their services on those enrolled in their program, rather than offer their services to all farmworkers who need it.

Conferees felt that this is one of the most important and practical types of assistance that farmworkers get. For example, in San Antonio, one participant said it is imperative that farmworker programs take on the responsibility of identifying services provided by other agencies and provide assistance in securing those services. Simple referrals are not the answer in many instances, as they can result in workers being sent from one agency to another without securing services. (8) An Indianapolis conferee said that 35% to 40% of staff time is devoted to the advocacy role of advising caseworkers, getting the health department to check camp conditions, and trying to cut red tape. (3) Finally, an Atlanta conferee agreed that if clients are referred to an agency for service, clients get better service than if they approach the agency on their own. (6)

Eighty percent of the respondents indicated that outreach and referral services were provided in their area, but 47% indicated that there was still a high unmet need for the service. Client respondents rated this service more useful than any of the other supportive services; 82% of them rated it either high or very high in usefulness of the service.

Emergency Assistance

Emergency assistance is necessary for the unexpected emergencies which farmworkers experience. Usually it is in the form of financial assistance, but it can also be delivered as goods or services. It is provided from a variety of sources including county welfare agencies, church groups, and some CETA 303 programs. There is no nationally available program which is specifically focussed on emergency assistance, although formerly the Emergency Food and Medical Service (EFMS) was able to assist people with emergency needs.

Regarding usefulness of the service, 61% of questionnaire respondents rated emergency services high or very high. In terms of unmet need, 47% of the respondents ranked these services either high or very high.

Geographic differences in the provision of emergency services were brought out by conference participants. They indicated that the availability of emergency services depends on the locality. For example, the New England conferees did not feel that emergencies were a particular problem in their area because some programs have emergency monies. The Atlanta conferees said that some programs are able to provide emergency care, but that no emergency aid is available in Georgia. The Texas conferees said that there is no help for a migrant who runs out of gas or whose car breaks down and that there are no direct funds for rent, utilities, clothing, or furniture. In Seattle, with no EFMS funds available, farmworkers have been sent to the welfare office, which was not prepared for the load, resulting in long waiting periods for appointments.

State and Local Programs

Most programs for farmworkers are funded on a national level and administered locally by non-profit, state, local government, or other local agencies. Few programs exist, funded through state or local sources, directed at farmworkers. Theoretically, farmworkers are eligible for most state and community social welfare programs as local residents, but the exact number of farmworkers served under these programs is unknown as most general population state and local social welfare programs, as with general population federal programs, do not keep documentation as to number of farmworkers served. In the past, studies have shown that few farmworkers are actually served by these programs as there are several barriers to their use by farmworkers. These blocks include*:

- ° lack of interagency referrals
- ° lack of financial resources when required
- ° language and cultural differences between farmworkers and service deliverers
- ° geographic isolation and mobility of farmworkers
- ° delays involved between application for and receipt of services
- ° within training programs, the service deliverers' desire to assist those most likely to succeed, thus recording a high client success ratio. (12,pgs.3-6)

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*This list was adopted from a description of service barriers to farmworkers within vocational rehabilitation programs.

In a sample telephone survey of 18 state executive offices, state economic opportunity offices (human resource departments and other agencies), and Community Action Agencies, in homebase and user states with a large farmworker population, little information was found to reverse the conclusions noted above. As noted in Table 21, most agencies contacted noted no farmworkers served or the number of farmworkers served as unknown.

The total number of persons served by each agency was not provided; however, of those noting service to farmworkers, this target population made up no more than ten percent of those served. Programs in which farmworkers were enrolled centered in food/nutrition or education areas.

Two agency personnel contacted indicated their organization receives complaints from farmworkers concerning inability to receive services. One agency representative noted at one time his organization provided services targeted to farmworkers, but they have discontinued these services. Another agency representative said his organization will soon discontinue day care services. One complained of a lack of much needed emergency funds for farmworkers. Two agency personnel said their organization was conducting a survey to assess the number of farmworkers in their area, while another representative noted his agency did not "seek out" farmworkers. (10)

TABLE 21

SERVICES OFFERED TO FARMWORKERS BY STATE AND LOCALLY FUNDED MULTI-PURPOSE AGENCIES

			Type of Service				
Size & Location	Number of Farmworkers Served	Health	Nutrition	Education	Job Training	Housing	Other
California, Urban	United						United
California, Rural	Rural Nutrition-targeted to 1500. Other programs - about 1000		Rural Nutrition Action Program				Day Care and Other Centers
California, entire state Office of Rural & Migrant Affairs	No numbers available	Pediatrics Disability Rehabilitation	Food/Nutrition			Housing Inspection	Child care Unemployment Insurance, Agriculture Relations Board
Florida, 67 Counties	Not known						Migrant Labor Section
North Carolina, Rural	None at present time						
Maryland, 3 Counties, Rural			Emergency Food Program	Migrant Head Start	Manpower Program		All Services Available to Farmworkers
Pennsylvania, 2 Counties, Rural	None						
New Jersey, 5 Counties	Not known						All Services Available to Farmworkers

		Type of Service					
Size & Location	Number of Farmworkers Served	Health	Nutrition	Education	Job Training	Housing	Other
Virginia	"Small Number"						All Services Available to farmworkers
West Virginia	None known						
New York, 1 County	Not known		Emergency Food Program				
Ohio, 2 Counties	None						
Illinois, 1 County	About 10% of all in area (estimate: 2000 svd.)	*Home Nursing Program		Head Start			*Community Development
Illinois, Entire State	No numbers available						Children & family services; Day Care centers
Georgia, 8 Counties	100-125/year estimate						Emergency Assistanc program
Michigan, 2 Counties	None						
Minnesota	About 10% of 1200 families Altogether; 25 in Mig. Employment Program				*Mig. Empl. Program (Through CETA Title I		*All Services Available to Farmworkers
Arkansas	None known						

		Type of Service					
Size & Location	Number of Farmworkers Served	Health	Nutrition	Education	Job Training	Housing	Other
Washington	Overall number not known; 25 in English as a second language program	Health Services program	Food Bank	English as a second language program; GED			
Texas, entire state-158 labor camps, 10 regional health departments, area rehabilitation offices	500/year through rehabilitation program. No numerical estimates for other programs	Health services through State Health Department		State Bilingual program	Vocational Rehabilitation	Good Neighbor Commission; State Licensing of "recruiters" (differs from crew leader registration	Labor camp maintenance funds through state health department

*This state agency assists a federally funded farmworker program in provision of these services.

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CHAPTER 10

ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

Economic development ventures are viewed by farmworkers and those conducting farmworker programs as a worthy investment in time and expense, but an area which has been little utilized due to a lack of initial investment capital, maintenance funds and business technical assistance necessary to train farmworkers in operation of their venture. Farmworkers are looking toward federal resources to assist them in these ventures, although historically this assistance has not been available. The high failure rate of such ventures has been attributable to a lack of capital and expertise, but these failures have not discouraged farmworkers from considering economic development as viable.

A "farmworker economic venture" can be roughly described as a venture in which farmworkers play a major role in development and maintenance. There are four types into which such ventures may fall. The first is a venture begun by a group of farmworkers, usually a cooperative, in which the purpose is to "make life easier" for the members rather than make a profit, and the labor involved in the venture is voluntary. Consumer agricultural cooperatives and credit unions are examples of this type of venture. The second type of venture is a small business enterprise begun by an individual farmworker(s) and operated like any small business. The third type is a group development for the purpose of which is to make a profit for its organizers. Such ventures are begun by local community development corporations, farmworker agencies, or other community groups and may cover any type of enterprise. The last type of venture is an enterprise involving a community based group which works to bring industry into a community as a means of increasing employment opportunities. Such groups may work with a local Chamber of Commerce.

Groups made up totally of farmworkers are involved principally in the first two types of ventures, in both development and maintenance. Very few total farmworker groups are involved in the third type, venture for profit, although farmworkers are involved in such community ventures on an individual basis. Few, if any, farmworker groups are involved in the fourth type although, again, individual farmworkers may be part of community groups. It is difficult to estimate the number of pure farmworker ventures or extent of farmworker involvement in community enterprises, as no formal study has ever been conducted.

Of the sample surveyed for this study, both by questionnaires and at conferences, approximately 35% indicated that they had economic development ventures operated by farmworkers or that there were such ventures in their area.

Some of the economic development ventures mentioned were:

- A credit union in Texas with assets of approximately $1.5 million, 18 staff workers and a farmworker membership of 4,023.
- A highly successful strawberry cooperative in California. In operation sever years, this business is making a large profit for its fifteen family farmowrker members.

- Two local development corporations which have provided other farmworker ventures with technical assistance, enabling them to become very profitable enterprises.

- A growing and highly successful business in North Carolina which trains eel fishermen and markets catches and fishing equipment. This venture, thanks to the efforts of one individual, is marketing goods along the east coast and overseas.

- A Tennessee program, begun three years ago, which is combining replenishment of land, renovation of facilities, and farmworker skills training, to operate a 78 acre farm and a grocery store/restaurant. This project has been able to utilize the assistance of a variety of funding and manpower sources and has been commended by local authorities for its efforts.

- A farmworker owned grocery store operation providing a large return in its 15 months of operation.

- A garbage pick-up enterprise providing training and employment for farmworkers and a much needed community service.

Other businesses mentioned as being contemplated included fishing related ventures around the islands off the shore of South Carolina, a network of cooperatives to market farmworker farm produce throughout Minnesota, and expansion of existing economic development ventures.

Farmworker economic development ventures are begun for a variety of reasons, with concentration on five factors:

- To provide goods or services to the farmworker at reduced cost.
- To provide on-the-job training.
- To supply a source of employment for farmworkers.
- To generate operating capital for farmworker programs.
- To develop funding sources for other farmworker ventures.

Most participants at the conferences stressed the third factor, a source of employment for farmworkers, as the one they considered most important in designing farmworker ventures. Participants said most enterprises are not designed primarily to make a profit for their participants, but it was felt they must be profit-making to continue as an on-going venture and accomplish their designated purposes. (8)

In general, those surveyed for the study felt economic development ventures were useful to farmworkers.

Although economic development ventures have been viewed as possible means of alleviating the farmworker poverty and unemployment cycle, little federal money has been placed directly in this area. The Emergency Food and Medical Services (EFMS) of the Office of Economic Opportunity was the only agency involved in providing initial operating capital to farmworker economic development ventures, with funds utilized mainly for family cooperatives. These flexible funds were distributed by OEO III-B local grantees on a start-up basis, usually at a very low level of funding (approximately $5,000 per venture). OEO III-B grantees were designated to monitor and assist the cooperatives in which they invested, but, for the most part, these grantees lacked the business expertise, the administrative time, and the resources to purchase consultant services to maintain a proper level of assistance. Additionally, cooperatives were not successful enough to allow their participants to leave income producing farmwork and devote their full time to the ventures. This meant that all activities were undertaken on a part-time, and often voluntary basis. Ventures floundered for lack of managerial and technical expertise, full-time management, and lack of maintenance funds. EFMS provided some technical assistance through an outside contractor but this effort did not have the significant impact which was necessary. Some cooperatives were able to provide their family participants with food products at little cost, but most failed. Those which did succeed in providing income producing jobs and/or profits for their participants did so through the aid of outside technical assistance contractors, development of additional monetary resources, or through the particular strivings of one individual within the venture who had the necessary technical expertise. These ventures became spin-offs from their local sponsors and developed into independent enterprises, functioning on a profit basis. Other unsuccessful ventures remained under the wing of their sponsoring agents, never gaining the momentum necessary to spin off.

Alternative start-up funding sources for economic development ventures in operation today, as depicted through questionnaire response, include CSA, DOL, private sources, and others. Of these ventures, 72% (13 of the 22 respondents indicating they had ventures) are being maintained through funding from CETA 303 or Community Action Programs. The others are maintained through private funding. Direct funding sources mentioned, other than those noted above, include:

- "Left-over" OEO Title III-B money.
- The Campaign for Human Development.
- North Carolina Council of Churches.
- Project Hope.
- Local Minority credit unions.
- Private investors.
- Local migrant groups or cooperatives.

It was noted at two conferences that, although economic development money is available from the Economic Development Administration (EDA), farmworkers are unable to tap into this source. At the Northwest Conference it was indicated that farmworkers did not have the capability to perform the necessary feasibility studies to apply for EDA funds, while at the Upper Central Conference the feeling was expressed that the EDA did not look with favor on farmworker ventures due to the "highly politicized" nature of EDA. In contrast to this, however, one participant indicated that farmworker economic development ventures in his area were begun with EDA funds but that they are now maintained through a local community economic development group.

Ventures in operation today are still faced with the two problems which plagued EFMS cooperatives: lack of funding and lack of technical expertise. These problems were noted both by those involved in economic development ventures and by those desiring to begin such ventures.

Sources for start-up funding, as noted earlier, are very limited, and study participants indicated they are becoming further limited.

Conference attendees expressed the view that economic development ventures were "not allowed" under CETA 303, currently a primary source for farmworker programs and the successor to OEO III-B. (6) This was in contradiction to those questionnaire respondents indicating ventures in their areas were maintained through 303. This discrepancy may be due to the use of CETA 303 funds to maintain ventures begun with other government sources. The feeling seemed to be that DOL would not approve any venture start-up with 303 funds.

Conference participants expressed frustration with attempts, over the past five years, to generate government funding for ventures. Several indicated they were forced to turn to private sources or were unable to begin economic development due to lack of government support.

Lack of capital for administration and maintenance of economic ventures was also considered a serious problem, as start-up money is provided at only a minimal level, and maintenance money is very hard to obtain. Based on the assumption that "many businesses do not show a profit until the second or third year of operation," (10,p.13) this situation places beginning farmworker ventures at an extreme disadvantage. The second major roadblock to venture success is the lack of farmworker expertise in business areas, particularly in management. It was felt at one conference, that it is unfeasible for 303 manpower programs to train farmworkers in business areas, and the participants felt there is no other source of technical assistance which the ventures could afford. Only one venture had been able to secure a source for management training through a foundation grant. Other business areas in which participants felt skills were lacking included planning, organization, marketing, and basic business procedure.

Related to lack of technical assistance is a lack of the expertise, time, and money necessary to develop a sound feasibility study. Additionally, farmworker programs, perceiving themselves as possible agents of economic development, saw a need for a separate staff devoting full time to sych ventures instead of the part-time basis under which most enterprises are now staffed and operated.

Other problems encountered by farmworker ventures relate to local conditions where community relations are strained. Conference participants suggested this "strain" arose more from failure to accept or assist the enterprise than from fear of the enterprise as competition. (6,8)

One point noted at two conferences in user areas was that economic development ventures should be initiated in home base states rather than in-stream areas. (4,9) It was felt that ventures dependent on a transitory population are less likely to succeed than those relying on a fairly stable base of residents. This belief in concentrating economic development efforts in homebase states corresponds to the view that enrolling, training, and settling-out migrants in manpower programs is difficult when they are in-stream.

Most participants in the study indicated that economic development ventures were valuable investments in time and funds. Nine questionnaire respondents pinpointed some economic development venture as a type of program "most beneficial to the farmworker community." Most of the conference participants indicated that economic development was a feasible investment given the proper resources.

Conference participants and questionnaire respondents seemed to feel that economic development is an "unmet need" and that it could be of great aid to farmworkers. At six of the conferences, participants specified economic development as one area in which federal assistance could have a large impact. Fifteen of the questionnaire respondents pinpointed economic development as a program needed in their area. Many said federal aid should take the form of direct funding and provision of technical assistance, thus providing services in an area they felt was void of assistance programs. It was suggested that direct aid could involve loans and grant programs or credit unions with built-in technical assistance to minimize the risks involved in starting a venture. Another suggestion concerned the presentation of conferences to make available information concerning federal efforts and resources in business development.

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APPENDIX

METHODOLOGICAL APPENDIX

QUESTIONNAIRE COVER LETTER

Enclosed you will find a questionnaire and an envelope for its return to us. As a part of our study, we have designed this questionnaire to solicit from persons dealing with migrant affairs information vital to the purpose of the study. We would greatly appreciate you taking the 10 to 30 minutes to complete it. Each response is important and we hope you will give the form serious consideration.

Most of the questions can be answered by making a simple mark along a line of numbers under each question. The line shows the possible range of answers. For example, if the question was, "Are all migrant farmworkers in your area from out of state?" and you knew that most were, you would answer as follows:

None 1 2 3 4 [✓ 5] All

We hope the rest of the form is self-explanatory.

Please note that a few of the questions ask you to distinguish between migrant farmworkers versus seasonal farmworkers. For the other questions, answer the question in relation to the prevalent group in your area.

Thank you very much for your help. If you have any problems in filling out the questionnaire, please call us at 202/333-4900. Please return the questionnaire as soon as you finish.

1. Please identify the services presently being offered to farmworkers in your area. (By area, we mean that in which your organization provides its services.) Also, we would like for you to identify what level of government delivers and offers these services and to what extent these service programs are useful and needed.

	Provided?		If provided, by which unit in your area? (303, CAP, etc.)	Extent of Unmet Need (whether services are being provided or not)					Usefulness to Farmworkers					Original Sourc of Funds (HEW, USDA, etc.)
	Yes	No												
Supportive Services:				Low				High	Low				High	
ay Care				1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	
Health Care				1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	
mergency Assistance				1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	
utreach and Referral (Advocate)				1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	
Transportation				1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	
egal Aide Assistance				1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	
amily Planning				1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	
ounseling Family-Individual				1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	
omen--Infant and Children (WIC)				1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	
ducation Services:														
dult Basic Education (ABE)				1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	
nglish as a Second Language (ESL)				1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	
Head Start				1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	
eneral Equivalent Diploma (GED)				1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	
uition Assistance Program (TAP)				1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	
igh School Equivalency Prg (HEP)				1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	
anpower Services:														
Classroom Training				1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	
n the Job Training				1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	
ork Experience				1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	
Job Development-Placement				1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	
utreach				1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	
ntake Assessment				1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	
rientation				1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	
Counseling				1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	
conomic Development:														
o-op Ventures				1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	
conomic Ventures				1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	
ousing Assistance:														
arm Labor Housing				1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	
Low Income Housing				1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	
elf Help				1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	

omments/Explanation of Abbreviations Used Above: ______________________________

____

2. In this second question, we would like for you to identify which changes have occured in the situation of farmworkers in your area; that is, have their needs gotten worse or gotten better in the past two years.

	Gotten Worse				Gotten Better
a. Health	1	2	3	4	5
b. Day Care	1	2	3	4	5
c. Food	1	2	3	4	5
d. Medical	1	2	3	4	5
e. Housing	1	2	3	4	5
f. Education	1	2	3	4	5
g. Job Training	1	2	3	4	5
h. Other: ____________________	1	2	3	4	5
i. Other: ____________________	1	2	3	4	5

Comments: ____

____

3. Is it difficult for farmworkers to be certified as eligible for service programs?

No Difficulty 1 2 3 4 5 Much Difficulty

4. How have opportunities for migrant and seasonal farmworkers changed in your area over the past two years?

a. Many Less Jobs	1	2	3	4	5	Many More Jobs
b. Fewer Crops	1	2	3	4	5	More Crops
c. Same Crops	1	2	3	4	5	Different Crops
d. Shorter Season	1	2	3	4	5	Longer Season
e. Less Mechanization	1	2	3	4	5	More Mechanization
f. Less Jobs For Migrants (Only)	1	2	3	4	5	More Jobs for Migrants (Only)
g. Migrants Traveling Less Distances	1	2	3	4	5	Migrants Traveling Longer Distances
h. Less Jobs for all Farmworkers Outside Agriculture	1	2	3	4	5	More Jobs for all Farmworkers Outside Agriculture
i. Bad Weather	1	2	3	4	5	Good Weather

j. Other: ______________________________

k. Other: ______________________________

Comments: ____

____

5. What have been the levels of employment in your area during this year compared to last year?

a.	For Migrants	Much Lower	1	2	3	4	5	Much Higher
b.	For Seasonal Workers	Much Lower	1	2	3	4	5	Much Higher
c.	For All Farmworkers	Much Lower	1	2	3	4	5	Much Higher
d.	For All Farmworkers Outside of Agriculture	Much Lower	1	2	3	4	5	Much Higher

6. What is the difference in the number of farmworkers this year as compared to last year?

Much Lower 1 2 3 4 5 Much Higher

7. a. Have farmworker wage increases kept up with the rise in the cost of living?

_______ Yes _______ No

b. Do you think the average farmworker's work-related costs have increased more than his earnings have increased?

_______ Yes _______ No

c. If "Yes," could you rank in order (1st, 2nd, 3rd, etc.) which of the following work-related costs you think have contributed most to the increase?

_______ Work Clothing
_______ Gasoline
_______ Housing Away from Home
_______ Utilities
_______ Food
_______ Medical
_______ Car Repairs
_______ Other: ______________________
_______ Other: ______________________

d. Specifically, what was the price of gasoline in your area at this time last year? __________ What is the price of gasoline now? __________

8. a. Of all the service programs in your area (i.e., day care, etc.) what percent do you think the average farmworker is aware of? __________

b. How many programs do you think the farmworker uses, on the average, during a year's time? __________

c. Are there any programs which have a significantly high recognition and usage among the farmworkers? _______ Yes _______ No

d. If "Yes," what programs are they? ______________________________
____
____

9. Of all the service programs in your area, which have been the most beneficial to the farmworker community and why? Could you give us the name of the program and the reasons you feel those programs have been beneficial?

1. ______________________________

____

____

2. ______________________________

____

____

3. ______________________________

____

____

4. ______________________________

____

____

5. ______________________________

____

____

10. What other kinds of programs are needed in your area? What advice would you give concerning any new programs designed to meet those needs?

____

____

____

____

____

____

____

____

11. We would like you to indicate by making an "X" on the line, as before in the questionnaire, to what extent you agree or disagree with these statements. For example, if the statement reads "Farmworkers do not get paid enough," and you strongly agree, you would mark the following:

Farmworkers do not get paid enough. Strongly Agree X________________ Strongly Disagree

- -

Growers are hiring more this year than last year. Strongly Agree ________________ Strongly Disagree

If farmworkers need assistance while they are in the area, they know of a place to go looking for work. Strongly Agree ________________ Strongly Disagree

It is easier to visit farmworker camps than it was three years ago. Strongly Agree ________________ Strongly Disagree

Local welfare offices often turn down farmworkers for services because they say the farmworker isn't eligible. Strongly Agree ________________ Strongly Disagree

There are more job opportunities for farmworkers outside of agriculture in this area than last year. Strongly Agree ________________ Strongly Disagree

If a farmworker gets sick while he or she is here, there is a doctor nearby who will help. Strongly Agree ________________ Strongly Disagree

Farmworker housing here is okay. Strongly Agree ________________ Strongly Disagree

The farmworkers know about most of the programs and services available around here. Strongly Agree ________________ Strongly Disagree

Farmworkers aren't traveling as far as they used to. Strongly Agree ________________ Strongly Disagree

The timing of the season has changed over the past two years. Strongly Agree ________________ Strongly Disagree

If a farmworker were offered a year-round job here, he or she would probably stay. Strongly Agree ________________ Strongly Disagree

Sanitation is not a problem in the camps. Strongly Agree ________________ Strongly Disagree

There are more people looking for farmwork this year than last year. Strongly Agree ________________ Strongly Disagree

Farmworkers can't buy things they used to buy with their money. Strongly Agree ________________ Strongly Disagree

Farmworkers are not too concerned about pesticides in the fields. Strongly Agree ______________________ Strongly Disagree

It is not too hard for a farmworker to get job training around here. Strongly Agree ______________________ Strongly Disagree

If a person is a farmworker, he or she gets special help from the county. Strongly Agree ______________________ Strongly Disagree

Wages are higher this year than last year. Strongly Agree ______________________ Strongly Disagree

Most farmworkers expect to make a living at farmwork ten years from now. Strongly Agree ______________________ Strongly Disagree

There is a program for just about every need that the farmworker has. Strongly Agree ______________________ Strongly Disagree

A farmworker can get Medicaid pretty easily here. Strongly Agree ______________________ Strongly Disagree

More crops are being harvested by machine this year. Strongly Agree ______________________ Strongly Disagree

Farmworkers spend little time waiting for work while they're here. Strongly Agree ______________________ Strongly Disagree

A lot of farmworkers would like to live here year-round. Strongly Agree ______________________ Strongly Disagree

Five years from now the farmworking situation will be about the same. Strongly Agree ______________________ Strongly Disagree

Employers are taking more care now to report farmworker earnings to the worker and to the government. Strongly Agree ______________________ Strongly Disagree

The farmworker doesn't use many of the programs or services that could be used. Strongly Agree ______________________ Strongly Disagree

A lot of people are coming to this area looking for work this year for the first time. Strongly Agree ______________________ Strongly Disagree

Most of the children have a place to be taken care of while their parents work. Strongly Agree ______________________ Strongly Disagree

Most of the growers have fresh drinking water in the fields. Strongly Agree ______________________ Strongly Disagree

Very few farmworkers get Food Stamps in this area. Strongly Agree ______________________ Strongly Disagree

In the next few years, there will be more farm jobs for farmworkers around here.	Strongly Agree	______________________	Strongly Disagree
Growers are more willing to obey laws concerning farmworkers than they used to be.	Strongly Agree	______________________	Strongly Disagree

Comments about specific items in question 11: ______________________________

____

____

Thanks very much for your help in taking the time to complete this form. Please return it to us as soon as possible. Use the space below for any additional information or comments you may care to make.

NAME: ____

ORGANIZATION: ____________________________________

ADDRESS: ____

____

TELEPHONE: _______________________________________

InterAmerica Research Associates

CSA Farmworkers Study

Conference Agenda

9:00 a.m. I. Introduction
- A. Purpose of Study
- B. Purpose of Conference
- C. Agenda and Procedures

9:15 a.m. II. The Situation of the Farmworker

9:30 a.m. A. Employment
- 1. Agricultural Unemployment
- 2. Non-agricultural unemployment
- 3. Underemployment

10:30 a.m. B. Supportive Services
- 1. Individual services
- 2. Migrant Program Effectiveness

11:00 a.m. C. Housing
- 1. Home base
- 2. Migrants in stream
- 3. Seasonal farmworkers

11:30 a.m. D. Education
- 1. Early Childhood Education
- 2. Secondary Education
- 3. College Education
- 4. Adult Education

12:30 p.m. LUNCH

1:30 p.m. E. Health
- 1. Migrant Health
- 2. Seasonal Farmworker Health
- 3. Common Health Problems of Farmworkers

2:30 p.m. F. Economic Development
- 1. Coops
- 2. Business Ventures

3:00 p.m. BREAK

3:15 p.m. G. Manpower
1. Manpower Training
2. On-the-job Training
3. Job Placement
4. Vocational Rehabilitation

4:45 p.m. III. Wrap Up

Note: For each item above the following aspects will be discussed:

A. Past and present

B. Migrant versus seasonal

C. Characteristics

- current situation
- the problem
- what is being done
- what should be done

CONFERENCE FACILITATOR

OUTLINE AND PROPOSED TOPIC QUESTION

INTRODUCTION

I. General
  A. Welcome
  B. Staff

II. Purpose of study
  A. Assess current Farmworker situation
    1. Elements affecting farmworkers
    2. Changes migratory patterns
    3. Inflation
    4. Change and demand, production
    5. Service for farmworkers, state, local agencies
    6. Number, characteristics of farmworker
    7. Effect of federal legislation, policies
    8. Attitude affecting the farmworker
  B. Study Use: Update data of farmworker
    1. Give CSA documentation
    2. Other government agencies
    3. Other interest groups
  C. Make-up of study
    1. Literature search
    2. Questionnaire
    3. Conferences -- 9 across country
  D. Purpose of Conference
    1. Accurate numerical data
    2. Assess current service delivery systems, problems meeting farmworker needs
    3. Participants represent various farmworker organizations in region
    4. Views shared, discussed
    5. Conference taped and staff take notes
    6. Conference cover agenda provided, staff direct discussion to cover each topic

III. Conference agenda
  A. Cover topics listed.
  B. Each area discuss:
    1. Past, present
    2. Migrant-in-stream, home based, seasonal
    3. Characteristics
      a. Current situation
      b. Problems
      c. What is being done
      d. What should be done

- C. Begin with staff member identifying areas to discuss
  - 1. Participants asked to comment from experience, knowledge
  - 2. Conclusions drawn
- D. Try time frame
  - 1. Hear all opinions
  - 2. Discussions long, okay
  - 3. Not finish, ask participants to continue next morning.

IV. Any questions?

EMPLOYMENT

I. Definition terms
A. Migrant--Someone does farmwork who cannot return to his home every night
1. In-stream
2. Home based
B. Seasonal--Someone doing farmwork who can return home every night. Does not do farmwork all year

II. Categories
A. Agricultural employment--those employed in agricultural work or agricultural workers not employed
1. Current situation
a. Who
(1) Age
(2) Sex
(3) How many
b. Problems
(1) Mechanization
(2) Crop changes
(3) Wages
(4) General economy
B. Non-agricultural employment, unemployment
1. Current local employment in each area
2. What local unemployed doing
3. Who is unemployed and employed
a. Age
b. Sex
c. How many
4. Problems affecting local employment
C. Underemployment
1. Definitions
a. Under skill level
b. Less than five days work, 1 hours a day
c. Less wages

SUPPORTIVE SERVICES

I. Individual Services
  A. Public assistance programs in area
    1. Welfare
    2. Food stamps
    3. Day care
    4. Legal assistance
    5. Emergency assistance
    6. Medicaid
  B. Availability to farmworker, difference between migrants and seasonals
    1. Hassled when apply
    2. Counseling
    3. Referral between agencies
    4. Paperwork
    5. Farmworkers aware of services

II. Migrant program effectiveness
  A. Linkages and coordination
    1. Your organization's links
    2. Problems with getting other public agencies to cooperate
    3. Formal agreements between agencies
  B. Identification and utilization of funding and assistance sources
    1. Effectiveness of your referral system
    2. Getting private assistance

HOUSING

I. Situations of migrants needing housing in-stream
  A. Where housed
  B. Adequacy
  C. Labor camp situation
    1. Who runs
    2. Conditions
    3. Effect of federal legislation on camps
    4. Money for camps
  D. Solutions to labor camps and general housing problems

II. Permanent housing, individual homes
  A. How many have homes in the area
  B. Difficulties in getting and maintaining homes

EDUCATION

I. General education facts
A. Level of education
1. Migrant
2. Seasonal
B. View of the importance of education
1. Parents
2. Youth
3. Active Head Start Program

II. Migrants coming into area
A. Are kids coming to pick during school year?
1. Are school kids working in fields now?
2. More or less
B. What are education arrangements for kids coming in
1. Mobile units
2. In local schools
3. No education
C. (If 2), How migrant kids treated in school
1. Classified
2. Reaction kids, teachers
3. Use Migrant Record Transfer Program
D. (If 1), How does program operate
1. Who runs
2. What does
3. Success (kid able to fit back into school)
E. Suggestions

III. Seasonals and home-based migrants
A. How much education interrupted by agricultural work
1. Classified
2. Reaction kids, teachers
3. Receive education in-stream somewhere else?
B. Parental control of education process
C. Bi-lingual program
1. Use
2. Success
3. Problems
D. Tutorial programs
E. Counseling
F. Possible solutions

IV. Adult education programs

HEALTH

- I. General
    - A. Increase in health needs
        - 1. New migrants bring new problems
        - 2. Mechanization, more accidents
        - 3. Bad labor camp situation
        - 4. Pesticides
        - 5. Deaths related to health problems

- II. Can farmworkers get health assistance here?
    - A. Ambulatory care
        - 1. Type
            - a. Mobile units
            - b. Health clinics
            - c. Public services
        - 2. Access
            - a. Discrimination
            - b. Lack nurses, doctors
            - c. Transportation system
            - d. Bad hours
        - 3. Comprehensiveness
            - a. Preventive
            - b. Health education
            - c. Outreach
            - d. Specialty--family planning, prenatal, dental
        - 4. Referral system
    - B. In-patient care
        - 1. Emergency hospitalization
            - a. Access
            - b. Who pays
        - 2. Elective surgery
            - a. Access
            - b. If no access here where do they go
            - c. Who pays
    - C. Other
        - 1. Drugs and medication
            - a. Who pays
            - b. Instruction
            - c. Follow-up
            - d. Availability of pharmacy services
        - 2. Long-term care
            - a. Where
            - b. Who pays
            - c. How family taken care of if main provider sick
        - 3. Specialty care
            - a. Are specialists available
            - b. Are facilities available

        c. If no to a & b, where are they available and how does farmworkers get to them
        d. Who pays
    D. Suggestions for improvement

III. Future of migrant health
    A. Should it integrate into rural health
    B. Should it stay separate
    C. National health insurance
        1. Will it help
        2. Will it really make health service available to the poor
    D. Can manpower tie into health needs

ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

I. Kinds/types of economic development ventures in operation or planned
   A. Coops
   B. Other businesses
   C. Success

II. Problems of economic development ventures
   A. Funding
      1. Start-up
      2. Maintenance
      3. Where get
         a. Federal government
         b. Banks
         c. Community
   B. Technical training
      1. Areas related to technical problems
         a. Where get technical aid
      2. Business know-how
         a. What types of business assistance needed
            (1) Management
            (2) Accounting
            (3) Marketing
         b. Where get business TA
         c. Who pays for business TA
         d. How effective business TA
   C. Community relations
      1. Suppliers cooperative
      2. Competition
   D. Other

III. Purpose of economic development ventures
   A. Jobs
   B. Operating capital for social service programs
   C. Provide services to farmworkers

IV. Feasibility of economic development ventures
   A. Can farmworkers operate businesses
   B. Coop or other business venture best
   C. Can money be better spent elsewhere
   D. If important, how could these ventures have a better chance of success

MANPOWER

I. General
  A. Type of training
    1. OJT
    2. Direct placement
    3. Specific training
  B. Job counseling
    1. Type
    2. Success with migrants
  C. How is an applicant chosen
    1. Age
    2. Sex
    3. Prior
    4. Migrant vs. seasonal

II. Problems with training
  A. Availability of jobs
    1. If trained will they find jobs
    2. If OJT will you fill the market
  B. Type of training which would be good for farmworkers
  C. Relocation
    1. Good or bad?
    2. If do it, how accepted by farmworkers
    3. How accepted by community
  D. Success in terms of quantity
    1. Does this affect who chosen for training
    2. Other ways to measure success

III. Improvement
  A. More than 1 year funding
  B. Less pressure for quantity and more for quality
  C. 2-3 year training programs

WRAP-UP

1. Which area would you put emphasis on if you could
2. Not what you take, but what you leave
3. Reports or summaries available if you want
4. Vouchers

Conference Report

Outline

I. General

- A. Conference information
  - 1. city
  - 2. dates
  - 3. ficilitators
- B. Paricipants
  - 1. no-shows
  - 2. additional participants
    - a. invited
    - b. uninvited
  - 3. characteristics of those present
    - a. all project directors
    - b. all staff
    - c. degree of mix
- C. Logistics
  - 1. hotel arrangements
  - 2. stenos
  - 3. recording
  - 4. work done outside the two-day meeting
  - 5. other

II. Conference Sessions

- A. Introduction
- B. Employment
    - 1. nature of discussion
    - 2. problems with discussion
    - 3. conclusions
- C. Manpower
    - 1. nature/problems
    - 2. conclusions
- D. Economic Development
    - 1. nature/problems
    - 2. conclusions
- E. Education
    - 1. nature/problems
    - 2. conclusions
- F. Health
    - 1. nature/problems
    - 2. conclusions
- G. Housing
    - 1. nature/problems
    - 2. conclusions
- H. Supportive Services
    - 1. nature/problems
    - 2. conclusions
- I. Wrap-up
    - 1. nature/problems

III. Value of Information Collected

A. Was any documentation presented?

B. Were any participants usually at odds with opinions of rest of the group?

C. Did people contradict themselves often?

D. Were most points made agreed on by the whole group?

E. How representative do you think the participants and the information were in describing situation of farmworkers in the area?

IV. Your Assessment of the Conference

CONFERENCE PARTICIPANT BREAKDOWN[1]

PROGRAM TYPE	NUMBER INVITED	NUMBER ATTENDING	OTHER[2]
Manpower	37[3]	38[4]	
Health	21[5]	12	2
Education	7[6] [3]	6[4] [7]	
State Representatives (health, education, manpower, human resources)	9[3] [5] [6]	3[4] [7]	
Other Representatives (other non-profit community agencies dealing with farmworkers)	5	8	
Farmworkers	13	3	
TOTAL	92 (80 actual)	70 (63 actual	2

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[1] The information provided summarizes invitees and attendees at all nine conferences.

[2] Extensive personal interviews were conducted with these individuals as they could not attend the conferences.

[3] Three participants were involved in both manpower and education; three participants were involved in both manpower and state agencies.

[4] Four participants were involved in both manpower and education; two participants were involved in both manpower and state agencies.

[5] Three participants were involved in both health and state agencies.

[6] Three participants were involved in both education and state agencies.

[7] One participant was involved in both education and state agencies.

[8] Actual totals give number of actual invitees and attendees disregarding duplications due to one participant representing two program types.

CETA TITLE III - 303 GRANTEE DIRECTORY

DOL'S DIRECTORY OF MIGRANT SEASONAL FARMWORKERS GRANTEES

Grantee	Grant No.	CAR
REGION I		
CONNECTICUT		
New England Farm Workers Council 3502 Main Street Springfield, Massachusetts 01107 Contact: Mr. Bruce Young Candelaria (413) 736-4525	99-5-340-31-58	A. Cermeno (202) 376-6218
MASSACHUSETTS		
New England Farm Workers Council 3502 Main Street Springfield, Massachusetts 01107 Contact: Mr. Bruce Young Candelaria (413) 736-4525	99-5-325-31-43	"
RHODE ISLAND		
New England Farm Workers Council 3502 Main Street Springfield, Massachusetts 01107 Contact: Mr. Bruce Young Candelaria (413) 736-4525		"
REGION II		
NEW JERSEY		
Farmworkers Corporation of New Jersey 5 South State Street Vineland, New Jersey 08360 Contact: Alex Morisey (609) 691-7101	99-5-327-31-45	"

Grantee	Grant No.	GAR
REGION II		
NEW YORK		
Program Funding, Inc. Suite 730 - Powers Building Rochester, New York 14614 Contact: Ms. Karen Tobin (716) 546-7180	99-5-384-31-72	A. Cermeno (202) 376-6218
NEW YORK		
State of New York (Wayne Co. CAP) Building 12, Room 563 State Office Building Campus Albany, New York 12201 Contact: Larry Shapiro (518) 457-1150	99-5-389-31-75	"
NEW YORK		
Suffolk County Department of Labor Veterans Memorial Highway Hauppauge, New York 11787 Contact: George Mason (516) 979-2844	99-5-386-31-73	"
PUERTO RICO		
Commonwealth of Puerto Rico - Department of Labor Mainland Project c/o Migration Division 322 West 45th Street New York, New York 10036 Contact: Ralph Sanchez, Mainland Coordinator (212) 245-0700, Ext. 846	99-5-338-31-62	"

Grantee	Grant No.	GAR
REGION II		
PUERTO RICO		
Commonwealth of Puerto Rico Department of Labor 414 Barbosa Avenue Hato Rey, Puerto Rico 00917 Contact: Hector Colon Berrios, Project Director (309) 763-5151, Ext. 255	99-5-338-31-62	A. Cermeno (202) 376-6218
PUERTO RICO		
High School Equivalency Program Catholic University of Puerto Rico Postal Substation #6 Ponce, Puerto Rico 00731 Contact: Mr. Carlos Guffain (809) 83302135	31490-74-01	"
REGION III		
DELAWARE		
Delmarva Ecumenical Agency Blue Hen Mall Dover, Delaware 19901 Contact: Ms. Patricia Groff (302) 674-4437	99-5-323-31-41	B. Fowler (202) 376-6218
MARYLAND		
State of Maryland Employment Security Administration 1100 North Eutaw Street Baltimore, Maryland 21201 Contact: James Ross, Director, Rm. 503 (301) 383-2249	99-5-337-31-55	"

Grantee	Grant No.	GAR
REGION III		
PENNSYLVANIA		
Commonwealth of Pennsylvania Department of Community Affairs Box 155 Payne-Shoemaker Building Harrisburg, Pennsylvania 17120 Contact: Ms. Diane Dubovsky, Director	99-5-382-31-69	B. Fowler (202) 376-6218
VIRGINIA		
Migrant & Seasonal Farmworkers Association, Inc. 3929 Western Blvd. P. O. Box 3315 Raleigh, North Carolina 27606 Contact: William Shipes (919) 828-0303	99-5-297-31-55	"
WEST VIRGINIA		
State of West Virginia Governor's Manpower Office Capitol Building Charleston, West Virginia 25305 Contact: Mr. George Peterson (304) 348-7804	99-5-339-31-57	"
REGION IV		
ALABAMA		
Alabama Migrant & Seasonal Farmworkers Council, Inc. 405 East South Blvd. Montgomery, Alabama 36108 Contact: Julius Robinson (205) 284-1660	99-5-324-31-42	Dan Cox (202) 376-7086

Grantee	Grant No.	GAR
REGION IV		
FLORIDA		
University of Miami High School Equivalency Program 1223 Dickinson Dr., Bldg. 48-H P. O. Box 8171 Coral Gables, Florida 33124 Contact: Ms. Billie Davis, Director (305) 284-2566	99-5-248-31-13	Dan Cox (202) 376-7-8
FLORIDA		
Community Action Migrant Program 3521 W. Broward Blvd. #10 Ft. Lauderdale, Florida 33312 Contact: Clark Black (305) 584-7880	99-5-326-31-44	"
FLORIDA		
Adult Migrant Program Florida State Department of Education Pam American Bank Building 715 East Bird Street Suite 309 Tampa, Florida 33604 Contact: Ms. Pat Hall (813) 733-2802	99-5-328-31-46	"
GEORGIA		
Office of the Governor Georgia Employment Office 501 Pulliam Street, S.W. Room 146 - Training Office Atlanta, Georgia 30312 Contact: Mr. Terry Myer (404) 656-3157	99-5-342-31-61	"

Grantee	Grant No.	GAR
REGION IV		
KENTUCKY		
Commonwealth of Kentucky Department for Human Resources Capitol Building Annex Frankfort, Kentucky 40601 Contact: Mr. Joe Bojanowski (502) 564-5331		Dan Cox (202) 376-7086
MISSISSIPPI		
Mississippi Delta Council for Farmworkers Opportunity, Inc. 1933 Fourth Street Clarksdale, Mississippi 38614 Contact: Mr. Joseph Wheatley (601) 627-1121	99-5-335-31-53	"
NORTH CAROLINA		
Migrant & Seasonal Farmworkers Association, Inc. 3929 Western Blvd. P. O. Box 3315 Raleigh, North Carolina 27606 Contact: Mr. William Shipes (919) 828-0303	99-5-297-31-60	B. Fowler (202) 376-6218
SOUTH CAROLINA		
Office of the Governor Office of Manpower Planning & Coordination Division of Administration Edgar A. Brown Building Columbia, South Carolina 29201 Contact: Ms. Carolyn Glymph (803) 758-2866	99-5-403-31-78	Dan Cox (202) 376-7086

Grantee	Grant No.	GAR
REGION IV		
SOUTH CAROLINA		
South Carolina Commission for Farmworkers, Inc. 134 Meeting Street Charleston, South Carolina 29401 Contact: Rev. James Blake (803) 722-8474	99-5-395-31-95	Dan Cox (202) 376-7086
TENNESSEE		
Department of Employment Security Manpower Division 161 8th Avenue, North Nashville, Tennessee 37203 Contact: Mr. Ken Looney (615) 741-3591	99-5-300-31-31	"
REGION V		
ILLINOIS		
Illinois Migrant Council 19 W. Jackson Blvd. Chicago, Illinois 60604 Contact: Mr. Robert Munoz (312) 663-1522	99-5-334-31-52	G. Reed (202) 376-6218
INDIANA		
Associated Migrant Opportunity 1100 W. 42nd Street Indianapolis, Indiana 46208 Contact: Mr. Daniel Tirado (317) 924-5845	99-5-302-31-33	"

Grantee	Grant No.	GAR
REGION V		
MICHIGAN		
United Migrants for Opportunity Inc. (UMOI) 111 South Lansing Street Mount Pleasant, Michigan 48858 Contact: Mr. Carlos Sundermann (517) 772-2901	99-5-308-31-39	G. Reed (202) 376-6218
MINNESOTA		
Minnesota Migrant Council 618 1/2 South Second Street Room 102 St. Cloud, Minnesota 56301 Contact: Mr. Jose Valdez (612) 253-7010	99-5-309031-40	"
OHIO		
La Raza Unida 1616 East Wooster Bowling Green, Ohio 43402 Contact: Narciso Rodriguez (419) 352-8431	99-5-299-31-30	"
WISCONSIN		
United Migrant Opportunity Services (UMOS) P. O. Box 5343 809 W. Greenfield Avenue Milwaukee, Wisconsin 53204 Contact: Mr. Lupe Martinez (414) 671-5700, Ext. 42	99-5-298-31-29	"

Grantee	Grant No.	GAR
REGION V		
WISCONSIN		
University of Wisconsin High School Equivalency Program 2114 East Kenwood Blvd. Campus School - Room 112 Milwaukee, Wisconsin 53201 Contact Person: Mr. Carl Chavez	99-5-237-31-5	G. Reed (202) 376-6218

Grantee	Grant No.	GAR
REGION VI		
ARKANSAS		
Arkansas Council of Farmworkers, Inc. 1200 Westpark Drive P. O. Box 4241 Asher Station Little Rock, Arkansas 72204 Contact: Mr. W. Joe Cook (501) 666-0361	99-5-336-31-54	Renee Crucil (202) 376-6218
LOUISIANA		
Manpower Education & Training (MET) 324 Broadway Jennings, Louisiana 70546 Contact: Mr. Joe Cook (318) 824-6780	99-5-333-31-51	Bob Lunz (202) 376-7082
NEW MEXICO		
Home Education Livelihood Program (HELP) 933 San Pedro S.E. Albuquerque, New Mexico 87108 Contact: Mr. Jose Rivera (505) 265-7951	99-5-282-31-20	Rene Crucil (202) 376-6218
NEW MEXICO		
High School Equivalency Program New Mexico Technical Vocational School General Delivery El Rito, New Mexico 87530 Contact: Mr. Juan Garcia, Director (505) 581-4501	60093	

Grantee	Grant No.	GAR
REGION VI		
NEW MEXICO		
High School Equivalency Program Eastern New Mexico University Roswell Campus P. O. Box 6781 Roswell, New Mexico 88201 Contact: Mr. Dewey Johnson, Director (505) 347-5441, Ext. 290	99-5-241-31-9	
OKLAHOMA		
Oklahoma Rural Opportunities, Inc. 1100 Classen Drive Plaza Court Building Suite 221 P. O. Box 60126 Oklahoma City, Oklahoma 73106 Contact: Mr. Joe Gomez (405) 272-0396	99-5-288-31-22	Renee Crucil (202) 376-6218
TEXAS		
Associated City-County Economic Development Corporation (Hidalgo) 314 South Closner P. O. Box 1198 Edinburg, Texas 78539 Contact: Eliseo Sandoval (512) 383-8171	99-5-288-31-22	Bob Lunz (202) 376-7082
TEXAS		
Coastal Bend Migrant Council, Inc. 5001 Ambassador Row Corpus Christi, Texas 78416 Contact: Mr. Carlos Hererra (512) 853-9907	99-5-346-31-64	"

Grantee	Grant No.	GAR
REGION VI		
TEXAS		
Community Action Council of South Texas, Inc. 420 E. Main P. O. Box Drawer S Rio Grande City, Texas 78582 Contact: Francisco G. Zarate (512) 487-2585	99-5-279-31-17	Bob Lunz (202) 376-7082
TEXAS		
College Assistance Migrant Program Pan American University 1201 W. University Blvd. Edinburg, Texas 78539 Contact: Lucas Hinojosa (512) 381-3111	60053	"
TEXAS		
High School Equivalency Program Lamar University P. O. Box 10067 Beaumont, Texas 77710 Contact: Mr. Louis D. Brown, Director (713) 838-7133	99-5-238-31-6	"
TEXAS		
College Assistance Migrant Program St. Edward's University 3001 South Congress Avenue Austin, Texas 78704 Contact: Mr. Eugene Binder, Director (512) 444-2621	99-5-232-31-2	"

Grantee	Grant No.	GAR
REGION VI		
TEXAS		
High School Equivalency Program Pam American University 1201 W. Harriman Edinburg, Texas 78539 Contact: Ms. Clementine Cantu, Director (512) 381-2521	99-5-232-31-2	Bob Lunz (202) 376-7082
TEXAS		
High School Equivalency Program College of Education Building Suite 468 University of Houston Houston, Texas 77004 Contact: Mr. Hugo Valdez, Director (713) 749-1682	99-5-252-31-10	"
TEXAS		
Economic Opportunity Development Corporation of San Antonio and Bexar County 410 S. Main P. O. Box 9326 San Antonio, Texas 78204 Contact: Mr. Edmundo M. Zaragoza (512) 224-7561, Ext. 25	99-5-303-31-34	"
TEXAS		
Manpower Education & Training (MET) 105 East Houston Street Cleveland, Texas 77327 Contact: Mr. Frank Acosta (713) 59206483	99-5-333-31-56	"

Grantee	Grant No.	GAR
REGION VII		
IOWA		
Migrant Action Program P. O. Box 778 Mason City, Iowa 50401 Contact: Mr. Terrence Ambrose (515) 423-7572	99-5-363-31-66	Renee Crucil (202) 376-6218
KANSAS		
Kansas Council of Agricultural Workers & Low Income Families Inc. 205 West Chestnut Garden City, Kansas 67846 Contact: Mr. Gregory Bribiesca (316) 275-4123	99-5-305-31-36	"
MISSOURI		
Rural Missouri, Inc. 418 Madison Street P. O. Box 204 Jefferson City, Missouri 65101 Contact: D. R. (Rod) Miller (314) 635-0136	99-5-377-31-68	"
NEBRASKA		
State of Nebraska Department of Labor Comprehensive Employment and Training Unit Box 94600, State House Station Lincoln, Nebraska 68509 Contact: Eugene D. Staberg (402) 471-2637	99-5-331-31-49	"

Grantee	Grant No.	GAR
REGION VII		
NEBRASKA		
Nebraska Human Resources Research Foundation HEP University of Nebraska 501 North Tenth Street Building 591 Lincoln, Nebraska 68508 Contact Person: Mr. Michael Wortman (402) 472-3477	99-5-234-31-4	Renee Crucil (202) 376-6218

Grantee	Grant No.	GAR
REGION VIII		
COLORADO		
State of Colorado Division of Manpower 770 Grant Street Denver, Colorado 80203 Contact: Mr. Walt Gibson (303) 892-3165	99-5-083-31-49	
COLORADO		
College Assistance Migrant Program (Project ALMA) P. O. Box 114 Alamosa, Colorado 81102 Contact: Mr. Arnold Chavez, Director (303) 589-7607	99-5-230-31-1	"
COLORADO		
High School Equivalency Program Southern Colorado State College Library Wing, Room 230 Pueblo, Colorado 81001	99-5-249-31-14	
MONTANA		
State of Montana Manpower Planning Council State Capitol P. O. Box 169 Helena, Montana 59601 Contact: David E. Fuller (406) 449-2787	99-5-330-31-48	"

Grantee	Grant No.	GAR
REGION VIII		
NORTH DAKOTA		
Governor's Office CETA Administration State Capitol Building State of North Dakota Bismarck, North Dakota 58505 Contact: Don Gumeringer (701) 224-2790	99-5-332-31-50	
SOUTH DAKOTA		
State of South Dakota Department of Manpower Affairs Office Building #2 Pierre, South Dakota 58505 Contact: Ms. Marcia Donnan or James Ellenbecker (605) 224-3101	99-5-307-31-38	"
UTAH		
State of Utah Office of Manpower Affairs 640-B Wilmington Avenue Salt Lake City, Utah 84106 Contact: Michael J. Kirkham or Allen Ayoub	99-5-341-31-59	"
WYOMING		
Office of Manpower Planning Office of the Governor State of Wyoming State Capitol Building Cheyenne, Wyoming 82002 Contact: Mr. Frank S. Galeotos (307) 777-7671		"

Grantee	Grant No.	GAR
REGION IX		
ARIZONA		
Migrant Opportunity Programs (MOP) 6611 S. Central Avenue Phoenix, Arizona 85040 Contact: Mr. Ernest Mora (602) 268-0293	99-5-217-31-24	
CALIFORNIA		
Campesinos Unidos, Inc. P. O. Box 203 620 North 10th Street Brawley, California 92227 Contact: Adalberto Ramirez (714) 344-6300	99-5-304-31-35	Juan Medina (202) 376-6277
CALIFORNIA		
Greater California Education Project (GCEP) 841 W. Belmont Avenue Fresno, California 93728 Contact: Cruz Bustamente (209) 485-6770	99-5-295-31-36	"
CALIFORNIA		
California Polytechnic State University San Luis Obispo, California 93401 Contact: Mr. Antonio Garcia, Director (805) 546-4841	99-5-240-31-8	"

Grantee	Grant No.	GAR
REGION IX		
CALIFORNIA		
Proteus Adult Training, Inc. P. O. Box 727 111 West Acequia Visalia, California 93277 Contact: Mr. William Maguy (209) 733-4310	99-5-306-31-37	Juan Medina (202) 376-6277
CALIFORNIA		
Sacramento Concilio P. O. Box 896 1912 F Street Sacramento, California 95804 Contact: Enrique A. Lopez (916) 444-6314	99-5-292-31-25	"
CALIFORNIA		
Employment Development Department 800 Capitol Mall Sacramento, California 94518 Contact: Ralph Gunderson (916) 445-6000	99-5-359-31-65	"
HAWAII		
Department of Labor & Industrial Relations Office of Manpower Planning 720 Kapiolaini Blvd. Room 302 Honolulu, Hawaii 9624 Contact: Ms. Edith Watt (808) 548-6924	99-5-281-31-19	

Grantee	Grant No.	GAR
REGION IX		
CALIFORNIA		
College Assistance Migrant Program San Diego State University 5625 Hardy Avenue San Diego, California 92115 Contact: Mr. Antonio Rivas, Director (714) 286-5208	900-48-74-01	Juan Medina (202) 376-6277
CALIFORNIA		
University of the Pacific 3601 Pacific Avenue Building Quonset #4 Stockton, California 95204 Contact: Mr. Angel Perca, Director (209) 946-2521 or 2522	99-5-233-31-3	"
CALIFORNIA		
North Bay Human Development Corporation 2426 Mendocino Avenue Santa Rosa, California 94501 Contact: Mr. George L. Ortiz (707) 542-4733	99-5-296-31-27	"
CALIFORNIA		
OIC of Santa Clara Center of the Central Coast Counties 425 South Market Street San Jose, California 95113 Contact: Mr. Russell Tershy (408) 287-7924, Ext. 32	99-5-280-31-18	"

Grantee	Grant No.	GAR
REGION IX		
NEVADA		
Nevada Manpower Council State Mail Room Carson City, Nevada 89701 Contact: Al Ramirez (702) 885-4310		
REGION X		
IDAHO		
Idaho Migrant Council, Inc. 415 South 8th Street Boise, Idaho 83706 Contact: Humberto Fuentes (208) 345-9761	99-5-345-31-63	"
OREGON		
Oregon Rural Opportunities 5103 Portland Road, N.E. Salem, Oregon 97303 Contact: Gil Bazan (503) 393-7711	99-5-301-31-32	"
OREGON		
University of Oregon High School Equivalency Program Department Barrister Hall Eugene, Oregon 97403 Contact: Mr. Enrique Gallegos (503) 686-3531	99-5-258-31-16	"

Grantee	Grant No.	GAR
REGION X		
WASHINGTON		
Northwest Rural Opportunities (NRO) 305 Euclid Street Grandview, Washington 98930 Contact: Ricardo R. Garcia (509) 882-2291	99-5-283-31-21	
WASHINGTON		"
Washington State University High School Equivalency Program Department of Education 333 Cleveland Hall Pullman, Washington 99163 Contact: Mr. Salvador Acosta (509) 335-5652	99-5-243-31-11	

MIGRANT HEALTH DIRECTORY

REGION I (3 Projects)

City, State & Identification Number	Grantee & Project Director	Type of Project 1/	Service Sites	Areas Served
CONNECTICUT (1)				
Windsor 01-H-000-190	Shade Tobacco Growers Association Inc. P. O. Box 38 River Street Windsor, Connecticut 06095 Telephone: 203 688-4973 Anthony Amenta	B	Agricultural Workers Hospital	Western Massachusetts Southern Vermont Eastern Massachusetts Rhode Island Southern New Hampshire
MASSACHUSETTS (1)				
Springfield 01-H-000-189	New England Farm Workers Council 3502 Main Street Springfield, Massachusetts 01107 Telephone: 413 736-4525 Richard Rabin	B	Springfield, MA East Bridgewater, MA Wareham, MA Hartford, CT	Hampshire County, MA Hartford County, CT Hamden County, MA
MAINE (1)				
Presque Isle 01-H-000-301	Aroostook County Action Program P. O. Box 1116 Skyway Industrial Park Presque Isle, Maine 04769 Telephone: 207 764-6011 Norman Fournier	B	Presque Island, ME	Aroostook County

REGION II (12 Projects)

City, State & Identification Number	Grantee and Project Director	Type of Project[1]	Service Sites	Areas Served
NEW JERSEY (4)				
Bridgeton 02-H-000-062	Board of Chosen Freeholders of Cumberland County County Courthouse Bridgeton, New Jersey 08302 Telephone: 609 451-8000 William P. Doherty, V.M.D.	B	Bridgeton, NJ Fairton, NJ Millville, NJ Vineland, NJ	Cumberland County
North Brunswick 02-H-000-302	Visiting Nurse Association in Middlesex County 1915 Old Georges Road North Brunswick, NJ 08902 Telephone: 201 821-9500 Mrs. Julia N. Keyes	B	Middlesex General Hospital New Brunswick, NJ	Middlesex County
Salem 02-H-000-068	Board of Chosen Freeholders of Salem County Salem County Courthouse Salem, New Jersey 08098 Telephone: 609 769-2800 Lawrence P. Delvin, M.D.	D & E	Salem Memorial Hospital Woodstown, NJ	Salem County
Woodbury 02-H-000-370	Gloucester County Health Department Carpenter & Allens Lane Woodbury, New Jersey 08096 Telephone: 609 845-1600 Ruth A. Johnson	B		Gloucester County

City, State & Identification Number	Grantee and Project Director	Type of Project[1/]	Service Sites	Areas Served
NEW YORK (6)				
Brockport 02-H-000-329	Oak Orchard Community Referral, Inc. 80 W. Ave Brockport, New York 14220 Telephone: 716 637-5318 Miss Christine Sweringer	B		Monroe County
Kingston 02-H-000-063	Ulster County Health Department 244 Fair Street Kingston, New York 12401 Telephone: 914 331-9300 x335 Helen Geneis, PHN	E	New Paltz, NY	Ulster County
Cohocton 02-H-000-185	Project REACH, Inc. P. O. Box 4087 11 Maple Ave. Cohocton, New York 14826 Telephone: 716 384-5228 Mrs. Mary Hanson	B	Cohocton Medical Center	Steuben County Dansville Nunda
Riverhead 02-H-000-123	Suffolk County Health Department County Center Riverhead, New York 11901 Telephone: 716 979-2522 Leo Gitman, M.D.	C		Suffolk County
Rochester 02-H-000-156	Rochester General Hospital 1435 Portland Avenue Rochester, New York 14621 Telephone: 716 2[illegible]6-4000 Gerald Miller, M.D.	A	Sodus, NY Rochester General Hospital	Wayne County Monroe County

City, State & Identification Number	Grantee and Project Number	Type of Project 1/	Service Sites	Areas Served
Pine Island 02-H-000-282	St. Anthony Community Hospital P. O. Box 51 Pine Island, New York 10960 Telephone: 914 258-4037 Mrs. Peggy H. Weber	B	Pine Island, NY Goshen, NY	Orange County
PUERTO RICO (2)				
Mayaguez 02-H-000-115	Department of Health Commonwealth of Puerto Rico 1306 Ponce de Leon Avenue P. O. Box 9342 San Juan, Puerto Rico 00908 Telephone: 809 832-8686 Francisco Juame Anselmi, M.D.	A	Mayaguez Las Marias San Sebastian	
San Juan 02-H-000-060	School of Public Health University of Puerto Rico Medical Sciences Campus San Juan, Puerto Rico 00908 Telephone: 809 787-2492 Antonio S. Medina, M.D.	A	Bayamon	

City, State & Identification Number	Grantee and Project Director	Type of Project[1]	Service Sites	Areas Served
DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA (1)				
03-H-000-032	National Migrant Worker Council Leadership Conference of Women Religious Department of Health Affairs, USCC 1325 Massachusetts Ave., N.W. Washington, D.C. 20005 Telephone: 202 737-5733 Sister Mary Maurita Sengelaub, RSM	2/	Naples, FL Palatka, FL Tampa, FL Winter Haven, FL Kingston, NY Pine Island, NY Nassawadox, VA	East Coast
PENNSYLVANIA (1)				
Harrisburg 03-H-000-018	Pennsylvania Department of Health P. O. Box 90 Harrisburg, Pennsylvania 17120 Telephone: 717 787-6967 A. L. Chapman, M.D.	B		Counties: Adams, Berks, Columbia, Dauphin, Erie, Franklin, Lackawanna, Lancaster, Lehigh, Luzerne, Lycoming, Montour, Northumberland, Potter, Schuylkill, Snyder Union & York
DELAWARE (1)				
Dover 03-H-000-315	Rural Ministries Coalition Delmarva Ecumenical Agency Blue Hen Mall, 2nd Floor Dover, Delaware 19901 Telephone: 302 674-4437 Patricia J. Groff	E		Delaware Eastern Shore Maryland

City, State & Identification Number	Grantee & Project Director	Type of Project 1/	Service Sites	Areas Served
VIRGINIA (1)				
Richmond 03-H-000-027	Virginia Department of Health 109 Governor Street Richmond, Virginia 23219 Telephone: 703 644-4111 Dr. Belle Fears	B		Accomack County Northampton County
WEST VIRGINIA (1)				
Martinsburg 03-H-000-030	District #6 Health Department Berkely-Morgan Counties 125 West King Street Martinsburg, West Virginia 25401 Telephone: 304 263-5131 George Pugh, M.D.	B	Martinsburg Berkeley Springs	Berkeley County Morgan County

REGION IV--(10 projects)

City, State & Identification Number	Grantee & Project Director	Type of Project[1/]	Service Sites	Areas Served
FLORIDA (4)				
Frostproof 04-H-000-686	Frostproof--Avon Park--Wauchula Community Development Corporation Macxy Quarters Hopson Road Frostproof, Florida 33843 Telephone: 813 967-6611 x2224 Dudley Higgins	A	Frostproof, FL	Frostproof, FL
Jacksonville 04-H-000-214	Florida Department of Health and Rehabilitative Services Division of Health P. O. Box 120 Jacksonville, Florida 32201 Telephone: 904 354-3961 x336 John F. McGarry, M.D.		Bunnell, FL Hastings, FL	St. Johns and Flager Counties
	Projects			
	Broward County Migrant Health Project P. O. Box 1021 Fort Lauderdale, Florida 33302 Telephone: 305 525-6311		Pompano Beach Labor Camp, FL Pompano Beach Health Center, FL	Broward County
	Lee County Migrant Health Project P. O. Box 1226 Fort Myers, Florida 33902 Telephone: 813 332-1747		Charleston Park,FL Harlem Heights, FL Teeter Road, FL	Lee County

City, State & Identification Number	Grantee & Project Director	Type of Project	Service Sites	Areas Served
	Projects			
	St. Lucie County Migrant Health Project P. O. Box 580 Fort Pierce, Florida 33451 Telephone: 305 461-5350		Avenue C. 13th Street	St. Lucie County
	Hillsborough County Migrant Health Project P. O.Box 1731 Tampa, Florida 33601 Telephone: 813 223-1311.		Plant City, FL Ruskin, FL	Hillsborough County
	Glades-Hendry Migrant Health Project Box 278 LaBelle, Florida 33935 Telephone: 813 675-3721		Moore Haven, FL Clewiston	Glades-Hendry
	Collier County Migrant Health Project P. O. Box 477 Naples, Florida 33940 Telephone: 813 774-8962		Everglades, FL Immokalee, FL	Collier County
	Seminole County Migrant Health Project P. O. Box 1856 Sanford, Florida 32771 Telephone: 305 322-2724		Lake Monroe, FL Midway, FL Oviedo, FL	Seminole County
	Sarasota County Migrant Health Project P. O. Box 2658 Sarasota, Florida 33578 Telephone: 813 955-8101		Fame Center, FL Sarasota Health Department	Sarasota County

City, State & Identification Number	Grantee & Project Director	Type of Project[1]	Service Sites	Areas Served
	Projects Palm Beach County Migrant Health Project 825 Evernia Street West Palm Beach, Florida 33402 Telephone: 305 832-8561		Belle Glade, FL Delray Beach, FL Pahokee, FL Riviera Beach, FL	Palm Beach County
Miami 04-H-000-609	Community Health of South Dade, Inc. Suite 2 10700 Caribbean Blvd. Miami, Florida 33157 Telephone: 305 251-1330 George Rice	A	Homestead, FL Goulds, FL	Dade County
Apopka 04-H-000-714	West Orange Farm Worker Health Association 1703 South Central Avenue Apopka, Florida 32703 Telephone: 305 886-5151 Mr. Ellery Gray	A	Apopka, FL	Orange County

City, State & Identification Number	Grantee & Project Director	Type of Project[1]	Service Sites	Areas Served
NORTH CAROLINA (5)				
Clinton 04-H-000-228	Sampson County Health Department Cooper Drive Clinton, North Carolina 28328 Telephone: 919 592-6177 Caroline H. Callison, M.D.	C	Clinton NC	Sampson County
Hendersonville 04-H-000-226	Henderson County Migrant Council, Inc. P. O. Box 65 Hendersonville, North Carolina 28739 Telephone: 704 692-4289 Barbara Garrison, R.N.	C	Hendersonville, NC	Henderson County
Raleigh 04-H-000-227	NC Dept. of Human Resources P. O. Box 2091 Raleigh, North Carolina 27602 Telephone: 919 829-3131 Amin Khalil	F	Raleigh, NC	Statewide
Smithfield 04-H-000-278	Johnston County Health Center 618 North Eighth Street Smithfield, North Carolina 27577 Telephone: 919 934-4168 x6 Helen M. Ray	C	Selma, NC Smithfield, NC	Johnston County

City, State & Identification Number	Grantee & Project Director	Type of Project 1/	Service Sites	Areas Served
Wilson 04-H-000-231	Wilson County Health Department P. O. Box 91 Wilson, North Carolina Telephone: 919 237-3141 Marvin Price	C		Greene County Nash County Wilson County
SOUTH CAROLINA (1)				
Charleston 04-H-000-040	State Board of Health--Charleston County Health Dept. 334 Calhoun Street Charleston, South Carolina 29401 Telephone: 803 723-9251 Cecil F. Jacobs, M.D.	B	Edisto Island Labor Camp Johns Island Labor Camp Mt. Pleasant Labor Camp Peters Field Clinic	Beaufort County Charleston County Edgefield County Spartanburg County

REGION V--(12 Projects)

City, State & Identification Number	Grantee & Project Director	Type of Project 1/	Service Sites	Areas Served
ILLINOIS (1)				
Chicago 05-H-000-240	Illinois Migrant Council 19 West Jackson Blvd. Chicago, Illinois 60604 Telephone: 312 663-1522 James A. Laughlin	B	Rochelle, IL Hoopeston, IL Princeville, IL Chicago Heights, IL	Ogle County Vermillion County Peoria County Cook County
INDIANA (1)				
Indianapolis 05-H-000-120	AMOS, Inc. 1100 W. 42nd Street Indianapolis, Indiana 46208 Telephone: 317 925-9809 Gudrun Geibel	C	Highland, IN Logansport, IN Kokoma, IN Muncie, IN Plymouth, IN Scottsburg, IN	Lake County Cass County Howard County Delaware County Scott County Marshall County
MICHIGAN (3)				
Saginaw 05-H-000-121	Health Delivery, Inc. 801 Owen Street Saginaw, Michigan 48606 Telephone: 517 754-6557 David R. Gamez	B	Bay City, MI Alma, MI Lakeview, MI Saginaw, MI Sandusky, MI Caro, MI Belding, MI Mt. Pleasant, MI	Bay County Gratiot County Oakland County Saginaw County Sanilac County Tuscola County Ionia County Isabella County

City, State & Identification Number	Grantee & Project Director	Type of Project 1/	Service Sites	Areas Served
Benton Harbor 05-H-000-336	B.C.V. Health Service, Inc. 72 W. Main St. Benton Harbor, Michigan Telephone: 616 927-2209 Mr. Gordon Labuhn	B	Berrien General Hospital Hartford, MI Holland, MI Dowagian, MI Fennville, MI	Van Buren County Berrien County Ottawa County Allegan County Cass County
Traverse City 05-H-000-117	Northwest Michigan Health Services, Inc. 10767 Traverse Highway Traverse City, Michigan 49684 Telephone: 616 947-1112 Dale Reimer	B	Traverse City, MI Northport, MI Shelby, MI Beulah, MI	Grand Traverse County Antrim County Leelanau County
MINNESOTA (1)				
Moorehead 05-H-000-334	Minnesota Migrant Health Services, Inc. Moorehead State College Moorehead, Minnesota 56560 Telephone: 218 236-6502 Ann Zuvekas	B	Hallock, MN Blooming Prairie, MN Moorehead, MN Crookston, MN NORTH DAKOTA Grafton, ND Grand Forks, ND	Clay County Polk County NORTH DAKOTA Walsh County Richland County Cass County
OHIO (5)				
Columbus 05-H-000-093	Ohio Department of Health 450 East Town Street P. O. Box 118 Columbus, Ohio 43216 Telephone: 614 469-4364 Thomas A. Gardner, M.D.	B	Liberty Center, OH Ottawa, OH	Henry County Putnam County

City, State & Identification Number	Grantee & Project Director	Type of Project[a]	Service Sites	Areas Served
Toledo 05-H-000-339	S.O.L. Regional Health Services, Inc. P. O. Box 6190 Toledo, Ohio 43614 Telephone: 419 385-4661 x231 Mr. Daniel Andrade	B	Bowling Green, OH Findlay, OH Freemont, OH Oak Harbor, OH	Hancock County Ottawa County Lucas County Sandusky County Wood County
Ottawa 05-H-000-374	Putnam Regional Health Services, Inc. 4th & Agner Streets Ottawa, Ohio 45815 Telephone: 419 523-6405 Ms. Mary Mamaugh	B	Ottawa, OH	
Greenville 05-H-000-335	Darke-Mercer-Shelby Regional Health Services, Inc. 748 Chestnut St. Greenville, Ohio 45331 Telephone: 513 548-9680 Mrs. Jean Thieme	C	Greenville, OH St. Henry, OH	Darke County Mercer County Shelby County
Tiffin 05-H-000-337	Clinicas Migrantes Regional 89 East Perry Street Tiffin, Ohio 44883 Telephone: 419 935-5841 Jean Seaberger	C	Tiffin, OH Willard, OH Hartville, OH Napoleon, OH	Seneca County Huron County Stark County
WISCONSIN (1)				
Wautoma 05-H-000-329	La Clinica de los Campesinos Box 174 Wautoma, Wisconsin 54982 Telephone: 414 787-4011 Mr. Gil Walter	B	Wautoma, WI Endeavor, WI	Waushara County Marquette County

REGION VI (20 Projects)

City, State & Identification Number	Grantee & Project Director	Type of Project[1]	Service Sites	Areas Served
LOUISIANA (1)				
Franklin 06-H-000-374	TECHE Action Board 606 Haifleigh P. O. Box 312 Franklin, Louisiana 70538 Telephone: 318 828-2334 Rose Mae Broussard	A	St. Mary Parish, LA New Iberia, LA	St. Mary
NEW MEXICO (1)				
Albuquerque 06-H-000-261	Home Education Livelihood Program 933 San Pedro S. E. Albuquerque, New Mexico 87107 Telephone: 505 265-7951 Ray Lopez	A	Coyote, NM El Rito, NM Espanola, NM La Loma, NM Mora, NM Parkview, NM Penasco, NM San Miguel, NM Taos, NM	Rio Arriba County Mora County Taos County San Miguel County
OKLAHOMA (1)				
Oklahoma City 06-H-000-125	Oklahoma State Department of Health 3400 Northeast 10th Street Oklahoma City, Oklahoma 73105 Telephone: 405 482-7308 R. LeRoy Carpenter, M.D.	D	Hollis, OK Mangum, OK Altus, OK	Harmon County Greer County Jackson County

City, State & Identification Number	Grantee & Project Director	Type of Project[1]	Service Sites	Areas Served
TEXAS (17)				
Alice 06-H-000-034	Jim Wells County Commissioner Court 200 N. Almond Street Alice, Texas 78332 Telephone: 512 664-5582 Gonzalo Trevino	C	Alice, TX	Jim Wells County
Cotulla 06-H-000-091	La Salle County Commissioners Court 105 South Stewart Street Cotulla, Texas 78014 Telephone: 512 879-2342 J.M. Barton, M.D.	D	Cotulla, TX	La Salle County
DeLeon 06-H-000-126	DeLeon Municipal Hospital P. O. Box 30 DeLeon, Texas 76444 Telephone: 817 893-5895 Mr. Jerry Bush	B	DeLeon, TX	Commanche County
Del Rio 06-H-000-118	Del Rio-Val Verde County Health Department 200 Bridge Street Del Rio, Texas 78840 Telephone: 512 775-6852 Lewis G. Owens	B	Del Rio, TX	Val Verde County
Edinburg 06-H-000-316	Hidalgo County Health Care Corporation 1425 South 9th Street Edinburg, Texas 78539 Telephone: 512 383-4985 Xicotencatl Alvarado	B	Edinburg, TX McAllen, TX San Juan, TX Mercedes, TX	Hidalgo County

City, State & Identification Number	Grantee & Project Director	Type of Project 1/	Service Sites	Areas Served
Gonzales 06-H-000-035	Gonzales County Medical Society 519 1/2 St. Joseph Street Gonzales, Texas 78629 Telephone:512 672-6511 Ruth N. Shelby, R.N.	B	Gonzales, TX	Gonzales County
Harlingen 06-H-000-043	Catholic Charities, Inc. 308 S. Third Street Harlingen, Texas 78550 Telephone: 512 425-4079 Daniel R. Hawkins, Jr.	A	Raymondville, TX Harlingen, TX San Benito, TX	Cameron County Willacy County
Hebbronville 06-H-000-097	Jim Hogg County Commissioners Court P. O. Box 8 Hebbronville, Texas 78361 Telephone: 512 527-3015 Judge H. T. Martinez	B	Hebronville, TX	Jim Hogg County
Hereford 06-H-000-119	Deaf Smith County Public Health Clinic, Inc. P. O. Box 2113 Hereford, Texas 79045 Telephone: 806 364-2691 Gary V. Stagner	B	Hereford, TX	Deaf Smith County
Laredo 06-H-000-113	Laredo-Webb County Health Department P. O. Box 591 Laredo, Texas 78040 Telephone: 512 723-2051 Jose L. Gonzalez	A	Laredo, TX	Laredo-Webb County

City, State & Identification Number	Grantee & Project Director	Type of Project[1]	Service Sites	Areas Served
Mathis 06-H-000-326	Coastal Bend Migrant Council 300 Dr. Logan Ave. Mathis, Twxas 78368 Telephone: 512 547-3353	A	Mathis, TX	San Patricio County
Plainview 06-H-000-324	South Plains Health Provider Organization 2306 West Fifth St. Plainview, Texas 79072 Telephone: 806 293-4254 James Clayton	A	Plainview, TX Littlefield, TX Floydada, TX Crosbyton,TX	Hale County Crosby County Floyd County Littlefield-Lamb Coun
Rio Grande 06-H-000-041	Community Action Council of South Texas P. O. Drawer S Rio Grande City, Texas 78582 Telephone: 512 487-2585 Francisco G. Zarate	C	Rio Grande City, TX	Starr County
San Antonio 06-H-000-116	Southwest Migrant Association 2327 Castroville Road San Antonio, Texas 78237 Telephone: 512 434-0626 Joe L. De Los Santos	B	San Antonio, TX	Bexar County
San Benito 06-H-000-020	Cameron County Health Department 186 N. Sam Houston Blvd. San Benito, Texas 78586 Telephone: 512 399-1356 John R. Copenhaven, M.D.	D	Brownsville, TX San Benito, TX La Feria, TX Port Isabel	Cameron County

City, State & Identification Number	Grantee & Project Director	Type of Project[1]	Service Sites	Areas Served
San Marcos 06-H-000-143	San Marcos-Hays County Health Department Courthouse, Room 202 San Marcos, Texas 78666 Telephone: 512 392-5831 James S. Burwell	D	San Marcos, TX	San Marcos-Hays County
Zapata 06-H-000-013	Zapata County Texas Commissioners Court P. O. Box 875 Zapata, Texas 78076 Telephone: 512 765-4367 Teodoro Trevino, Jr.	B	Zapata, TX	Zapata County

REGION VII (6 Projects)

City, State & Identification Number	Grantee & Project Director	Type of Project 1/	Service Sites	Areas Served
IOWA (2)				
Mason City 07-H-000-035	Migrant Action Program, Inc. 1414 North Federal Ave. Mason City, Iowa 50401 Telephone: 515 423-7572 Terrence F. Ambrose	B		Cerro Gordo County
Muscatine 07-H-000-023	Muscatine Migrant Committee 218 West Second Street Muscatine, Iowa 52761 Telephone: 319-264-1155 Juan Cadena	B	Muscatine, IA Illinois City, IA	Muscatine County
KANSAS (2)				
Bonner Springs 07-H-000-122	Los Cinco Pueblos, Inc. P. O. Box 84 Bonner Springs, Kansas 66013 Telephone: 913 441-3301 Dr. Mary Estrada	B	Bonner Springs, KS	Wyandotte County
Topeka 07-H-000-018	Kansas State Department of Health 535 Kansas Ave. Topeka, Kansas 66603 Telephone: 913 296-3506 Evalyn S. Gendel, M.D., Acting	C	Garden City, KS Goodland, KS Johnson, KS Leoti, KS Satanta, KS	Finney County Sherman County Haskill County Wichita County Stanton County Kearney County Grant County Cheyenne County

City, State & Identification Number	Grantee & Project Director	Type of Project 1/	Service Sites	Areas Served
MISSOURI (1)				
Lilbourn 07-H-000-015	Delmo Housing Corporation P. O. Box 354 Lilbourn, Missouri 63862 Telephone: 314 688-2565 Alex A. Cooper	D	Lilbourn, MO	New Madrid County
NEBRASKA (1)				
Lincoln 07-H-000-017	Nebraska State Health Department 1003 O. Streeat Lincoln, Nebraska 68508 Telephone: 402 471-2101 Franklin D. Harris	C	Scottsbluff, NE	Scottsbluff County Sioux County Box Butte County Morrill County Deuel County Keith County Chase County Perkins County Dawson County Red Willow County

REGION VIII (6 Projects)

City, State & Identification Number	Grantee & Project Director	Type of Project[1/]	Service Sites	Areas Served
COLORADO (3)				
Denver 08-H-000-018	Colorado Department of Health 4210 East 11th Ave. Denver, Colorado 80220 Telephone: 303 388-6111 x315 Silver R. Jaramillo	3/	Avondale, CO Delta, CO Lamar, CO Longmont, CO Rocky Ford, CO Sterling, CO	Boulder County Delta County Logan County Prowers County Pueblo County
Ft. Lupton 08-H-000-062	Plan de Salud del Valle, Inc. 1190 Denver Avenue Ft. Lupton, Colorado 80621 Telephone: 303 857-2766 Stanley J. Bresher	A	Brighton, CO Dacono, CO Firestone, CO Ft. Lupton, CO Frederick, CO Henderson, CO Hudson, CO Keenesburg, CO Prospect Valley, CO Waltenberg, CO	Adams County Weld County Huerfano County
Greeley 08-H-000-063	Programa de Salud de Northern Colorado 1217 4th Avenue Greeley, Colorado 80631 Telephone: 303 353-9403 Leslie A. Leppla, M.D.	A	Greeley, CO	Weld County

City, State & Identification Number	Grantee & Project Director	Type of Project1/	Service Sites	Areas Served
MONTANA (1)				
Helena 08-H-000-054	Montana State Department of Health and Environmental Sciences Cogswell Building Helena, Montana 59601 Telephone: 406 449-2076 Virginia G. Kenyon	D & F	Bridger, MT Glendive, MT Laurel, MT Miles City, MT Sidney, MT Terry, MT Worden, MT	Counties: Big Horn, Carbon, Dawson, Garfield, Prairie, Richland, Rosebud, Tillwater, and Yellowstone
UTAH (1)				
Salt Lake City 08-H-000-070	Utah Migrant Council, Inc. 1380 W. North Temple St. Salt Lake City, Utah 84116 Telephone: 801 328-8619 Gabriel L. Vega	B	Ogden, UT Payson, UT Salt Lake City, UT Tremonton, UT	Box Elder County Cache County Davis County Iron County Washington County Weber County
WYOMING (1)				
Thermopolis 08-H-000-143	North-Western Community Action Programs P. O. Box 666 Thermopolis, Wyoming 82443 Telephone: 307 864-2269 DeVere Hinckley		Thermopolis, WY	Big Horn County Fremont County Hot Springs County Park County Washakie County

REGION IX (13 Projects)

City, State & Identification Number	Grantee & Project Director	Type of Project 1/	Service Sites	Areas Served
ARIZONA (3)				
Casa Grande 09-H-000-279	Arizona Job Colleges, Inc. 1669 N. Pinal Avenue Casa Grande, Arizona 85222 Telephone: 602 836-9771 Sid Goodman, Acting	A	Casa Grande, AR	Pinal County
Glendale 09-H-000-110	Maricopa County Health Department 7115 N. 57th Drive Glendale, Arizona 85301 Telephone: 602 934-2201 Raymond E. Kaufman, M.D., M.P.H	B	Avondale, AR Glendale, AR	Maricopa County
Yuma 09-H-000-112	Yuma County Health Department 201 S. Second Street Yuma, Arizona 85364 Telephone: 602 782-4531 A. J, Ochsner M.D.	A	Yuma, AR Somerton, AR	Yuma County
CALIFORNIA (10)				
Brawley 09-H-000-121	Clinica de Salubridad de Campesinos 1166 K Street P. O. Box 1279 Brawley, California 92227 Telephone: 714 344-6471 Mr. Ramon Mazon	B	Brawley, CA	Imperial County

City, State & Identification Number	Grantee & Project Director	Type of Project[1]	Service Sites	Areas Served
Orange Cove 09-H-000-120	Orange Cove Family Health Campesinos 445 Eleventh St. Orange Cove, California 93646 Telephone: 209 626-4031 Carlos Medina	A	Orange Cove, CA Parlier, CA	Fresno County
Lamont 09-H-000-119	Clinica de los Campesinos 10517 Main Street Lamont, California 93241 Telephone: 805 845-3751 Larry Zimmerman	A	Lamont, CA	Kern County
Merced 09-H-000-286	Merced Family Health Center P. O. Box 803 Merced, California 95340 Telephone: 209 723-4361 Michael O. Sullivan	B	Merced, CA	Merced County
Modesto 09-H-000-118	Stanislaus County Medical Society 2030 Coffee Road, Suite A-4 Modesto, California 95354 Telephone: 209 526-3450 Ann Adams	A	Empire, CA Patterson, CA Westly, CA	Stanislaus County
San Luis Obispo 09-H-000-288	San Luis Obispo County Health Department P. O. Box 445 San Luis Obispo, California 93444 Telephone: 805 929-3277 Bea Von Stein	B	Nipomo, CA	San Luis Obispo County

City, State & Identification Number	Grantee & Project Director	Type of Project 1/	Service Sites	Areas Served
Santa Cruz 09-H-000-290	Santa Cruz County Health Department 1060 Emeline Ave. Santa Cruz, California 95060 Telephone: 408 425-2022 Richard H. Svihus, M.D.	B	Santa Cruz, CA Watsonville, CA	Santa Cruz County
Stockton 09-H-000-114	San Joaquin County Medical Society 445 West Acacia Street Stockton, California 95201 Telephone: 209 948-5410 Richard Miller	B	Harney, CA Lane Camp, CA Linden, CA Lodi, CA Mathews Rd. Camp, CA Stockton, CA Tracy, CA	San Joaquin County
Yuba City 09-H-000-289	Northern Sacremento Valley Rural Health Project 1965 Live Oak Blvd. Yuba City, California 95991 Telephone: 916 742-5114 Dave Hughes	B	Yuba City, CA	Sutter County
Dixon 09-H-000-305	Regional Rural Health Program P. O. Box 845 Dixon, California 95620 Telephone: 916 678-4464 Cipriano Salazar	A	Courtland, CA Dixon, CA Esparto, CA Walnut Grove, CA Woodland, CA	Sacremento County Solano County Yolo County

REGION X--(6 Projects)

City, State & Identification Number	Grantee & Project Director	Type of Project[1/]	Service Sites	Areas Served
IDAHO (2)				
Boise 10-H-100-006	Idaho Migrant Council, Inc. 415 South Eighth St. Boise, Idaho 83706 Telephone: 208 454-0451 Humberto Fuentes	A	Caldwell, ID	Treasure Valley
Nampa 10-H-100-017	Community Health Clinics, Inc. 1003 16th Ave. South Nampa, Idaho 83651 Telephone: 208-467-4431 Marcelino Gonzalez	A	Nampa, ID Homedale, ID Parma, ID	Canyon County Owyhee County
OREGON (1)				
Salem 10-H-100-013	Oregon Rural Opportunities P. O. Box 7535 Salem, Oregon 97303 Telephone: 503 585-9200 x28	A	Hillsboro, OR Dayton, OR Jefferson, OR Woodburn, OR	Mid-Willamette Valley
WASHINGTON (3)				
Mt. Vernon 10-H-100-010	Whatcom-Skagit Rural Opportunity Council Box 87 112 Kincaid Mt. Vernon, Washington 98273 Telephone: 206 336-6581 Juan M. Marin	B	Mt. Vernon, WA Lynden, WA	Skagit County Whatcom County

City, State & Identification Number	Grantee & Project Director	Type of Project 1/	Service Sites	Areas Served
Toppenish 10-H-100-005	United Farm Workers Family Health Center P. O. Box 309 Toppenish, Washington 98948 Telephone: 509 865-2710 Martin G. Yanez	A	Toppenish, WA	Yakima Valley
Wenatchee 10-H-100-008	North Central Washington Migrant Health Project P. O. Box 1295 Wenatchee, Washington 98801 Telephone: 509 662-0511 Margaret Moran	A & B	Chelan, WA Manson, WA Wenatchee, WA Royal City, WA Quincy, WA Brewster, WA	Wenatchee Valley Chelan County Grant County Okanogan County

1/ CLASSIFICATION OF ORGANIZATION AND SCOPE OF SERVICES IN MIGRANT HEALTH PROJECTS

In order to facilitate the description of services provided by the projects, the following classifications were designed. It must be noted, however, that these classifications are not all inclusive. The designated codes shown for each project should be interpreted as being generally reflective of services provided and not as a precise measurement of all the specific services offered.

Code of Services	Description
A	Full Time Comprehensive Health Services: A comprehensive range of diagnostic, therapeutic, and follow-up medical services offered by the project on a daily and year round basis by full-time medical staff in a center setting. Provisions for dental care, health counseling and outreach services, as well as adequate provisions for preventive services are offered either inside or outside the center.
B	Scheduled Comprehensive Health Services: A scope of medical services similar to those listed above are offered by the project, but through intermittently scheduled clinics (e.g. one or two times a week at two or three hours per session). In general, these clinic sessions are backed by referrals of patients by nurses and outreach workers to local physicians on a fee-for-service basis at times when clinics are not in session. Provisions are also made for caring for other health needs such as dental care, health counseling, and outreach services in addition to preventive services. Environmental health activities are an element of the project.
C	Scheduled Medical Services: Although the project offers complete diagnostic, therapeutic and follow-up medical services through intermittently scheduled clinics with referral to private physicians during non-clinic hours, provisions are not necessarily made to offer dental care services, and other health services mentioned above. Environmental health activities may be an element of the project.

Code of Services	Description
D	Scheduled Categorical Health Services: The project focuses upon clinics for specific diseases or categorical emphasis (e.g. Tuberculosis Control, Venereal Disease Control, Maternal and Child Health, immunization, etc.) and does not offer a broad range of medical services in a clinic setting. General health care is provided through referral by nurses and outreach workers to private physicians and dentists on a fee-for-service basis. Camp sanitation inspections, and efforts to correct deficiencies may be a component of the project.
E	Nonscheduled Health Services: All general health care is provided by the project through a fee-for-service referral system to private physicians, and, in some instances, to private dentists. Nursing services provided are primarily outreach and follow-up. Camp sanitation inspections, and efforts to correct deficiencies may be a component of the project.
F	Administrative-Consultative Services: The project does little, if any, in the way of providing direct health care and devotes its efforts to consulting and coordinating the direct health care activities of other groups.

FOOTNOTES

1/ See Appendix II - Classification of Organization and Scope of Services in Migrant Health Projects.

2/ A project headquartered in the District of Columbia will operate on the East Coast migrant stream to supplement existing project services concentrating primarily on continuity of patient care from one project area to another.

3/ State-level coordination on project (classification F) provides direct services of classifications D and E in several counties in the state.

MIGRANT HEALTH PROJECT REPORTING REQUIREMENTS

BUREAU OF COMMUNITY HEALTH SERVICES
DIVISION OF MONITORING AND ANALYSIS
5600 Fishers Lane
Rockville, Maryland 20852

MIGRANT HEALTH PROJECT REPORTING REQUIREMENTS

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HSA-93
10-74

FORM APPROVED
O.M.B. No. 68-R 1437

DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE
Public Health Service
Health Service Administration
Bureau of Community Health Services
Division of Monitoring and Analysis

MIGRANT HEALTH PROJECT REPORTING REQUIREMENTS

QUARTER ENDING

GRANT NO.

PROJECT NAME

ADDRESS *(Number, Street, City, State, Zip Code)*

PERIOD PROJECT PROVIDES SERVICES DURING CALENDAR YEAR

BEGIN ____ *(Month)* ____ *(Day)* ____ *(Year)*

END ____ *(Month)* ____ *(Day)* ____ *(Year)*

ESTIMATED MIGRANT AND SEASONAL FARMWORKERS POPULATION IN SERVICE AREA THIS QUARTER

MIGRANTS AND FAMILY MEMBERS ____

SEASONAL FARMWORKERS & FAMILY MEMBERS ____

NAME OF PERSON PREPARING REPORT

AREA CODE AND TELEPHONE NO.

PROJECT DIRECTOR

SIGNATURE

CLINIC SITE LOCATIONS	COUNTY

HSA-93
10/74

FREQUENCY: QUARTERLY

Form Approved
O.M.B. No. 68-R 1427

NOTE: Statewide Grantees should submit separate reports for each service project.

HSA 92
10/74

GRANT NO.

TABLE 1 - NUMBER OF USERS THIS CALENDAR YEAR, DURING QUARTER ENDING ______________

ITEMS	TOTAL (a)	MIGRANT AND FAMILY MEMBERS (b)	SEASONAL FARMWORKERS AND FAMILY MEMBERS (c)	OTHER (d)
1. Number served this calendar year prior to start of this quarter *(Item 3 of last report)*				
2. Number served this quarter *(Sum of 2a and 2b)*				
a. First service this quarter				
b. First service in previous quarters				
3. Number served this calendar year by end of quarter *(Sum of 1 and 2)*				

[illegible]EQUENCY: QUARTERLY

TABLE 2 – NUMBER OF INITIAL USERS BY AGE AND SEX DURING QUARTER ENDING ______________

AGE GROUP	TOTAL[1] (a)	MALE (b)	FEMALE (c)
1. All Ages			
2. Under 1			
3. 1 – 4			
4. 5 – 14			
5. 15 – 17			
6. 18 – 20			
7. 21 – 44			
8. 45 – 64			
9. 65+			

---

[1] [illegible]

[illegible]

FREQUENCY: QUARTERLY

TABLE 3 – NUMBER OF INITIAL USERS BY RACE AND ETHNICITY DURING QUARTER ENDING ______________

RACE	ETHNICITY				
	TOTAL[1]	MEXICAN AMERICAN	PUERTO RICAN	OTHER SPANISH DESCENT	OTHER
	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
1. Total					
2. Black					
3. White					
4. American Indian					
5. Other					

[1] For Quarterly Reports
Total equals ITEM 2a column (a) of Table 1

FREQUENCY QUARTERLY

TABLE 4 – NUMBER OF USERS AND NUMBER OF ENCOUNTERS BY TYPE OF CARE DURING QUARTER ENDING ______________ CALENDAR YEAR ENDING ______________

TYPE OF CARE	NUMBER OF USERS	NUMBER OF ENCOUNTERS
	(a)	(b)
1. Total	[1]	
2. Medical		
3. Dental		

[1] For Quarterly Reports
Total equals item 2, column (a) of Table 1

[1] For Annual Reports
Total equals item 3, column (a) of Table 1

FREQUENCY Quarterly and Annually for Calendar Year

GRANT NO.

TABLE 5 – NUMBER OF ENCOUNTERS, BY PROVIDER TYPE, DURING QUARTER ENDING ____________

PROVIDER TYPE	TOTAL ENCOUNTERS	NUMBER OF ENCOUNTERS							
		STAFF		NON STAFF					
				SESSION/CLINIC		FEE-FOR SERVICE			
						REFERRAL		NON REFERRAL	
	(a)	IN CLINIC (b)	OUTSIDE CLINIC (c)	IN CLINIC (d)	OUTSIDE CLINIC (e)	PROVIDERS OFFICE (f)	OTHER (g)	PROVIDERS OFFICE (h)	OTHER (i)
A. Medical *(TOTAL)*									
1. Physicians *(Total) (M.D.'s & D.O.'s)*									
a) General or Family Practitioner									
b) Internist									
c) Pediatrician									
d) Ob/Gyn									
e) Other Specialty									
2. Physician Extenders* *(TOTAL)*									
3. Nurses* *(TOTAL)*									
4. Other Direct Health Care Providers* *(TOTAL)*									
B. Dental *(TOTAL)*									
1. Dentist									
a. General Practitioner									
b. Specialist									
2. Dental Hygienist									

*List by title or specialty

FREQUENCY: QUARTERLY

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TABLE 6 – NUMBER OF USERS AND NUMBER OF ENCOUNTERS BY EXPECTED PAYMENT SOURCE
DURING QUARTER ENDING ____________________

EXPECTED PAYMENT SOURCE	NUMBER OF USERS[1]	NUMBER OF BILLABLE ENCOUNTERS
	(a)	(b)
1. Total, All Sources ITEMS 2–6		
2. Medicare *(Part or All)*		
3. Medicaid *(Part or All)*		
4. Private Insurance		
5. Other Sources		
6. Patient *(TOTAL)*		
a. Full Fee		
b. Partial Fee		
7. No Collection *(Project Pays Costs)*		NON-BILLABLE ENCOUNTERS

[1] For Quarterly Reports
Total equals Item 2 column (a) of Table 1
For Annual Reports
Total equals Item 3 column (a) of Table 1

FREQUENCY: Quarterly and Annually for Calendar Year

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TABLE 7 – UTILIZATION OF INPATIENT HOSPITAL SERVICES BY PROJECT USERS

1. Total number of hospital discharges this quarter	
2. Total number of hospital days this quarter	
This table should include all hospital stays paid for by project funds, or contributed to the project as "in kind" or donated services.	

FREQUENCY: QUARTERLY

TABLE 8 – ACCOUNTS RECEIVABLE, BILLINGS, AND COLLECTIONS DURING QUARTER ENDING ____________

SOURCE OF FUNDS	ACCOUNTS RECEIVABLE AT BEGINNING OF QUARTER[1]	NEW BILLINGS DURING QUARTER	AMOUNT COLLECTED DURING QUARTER	ADJUSTMENT [illegible]
	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
1. Total *(2 + 3 + 4)*				
2. Grant Funds *(Subtotal, a & b)*				
a. Federal 1) Migrant *(DHEW)*				
2) Other				
b. Non-Federal				
3. Donations *(cash)*				
4. Other Funds *(Subtotal, a – f)*				
a. Medicaid				
b. Medicare				
c. Patient Payments				
d. Private Insurance				
e. Title IV A				
f. Other 3rd Party				

[1] Column (a) on this report should equal the result of the following calculation from the four columns on the previous report: (a) + (b) – (c) – (d)

FREQUENCY: QUARTERLY

TABLE 9 – NUMBER OF PATIENT CARE PROVIDERS BY PROVIDER TYPE, DURING QUARTER ENDING ______________________

GRANT NO.

PROVIDER TYPE	STAFF			NON STAFF		
				SESSION/CLINIC		
	FULL TIME** (a)	PART-TIME** (b)	FTE*** IN PATIENT CARE (c)	NUMBER** (d)	FTE*** (e)	REFERRAL NUMBER (f)
A. Medical (TOTAL)						
1. Physicians (M.D.'s & D.O.'s) (TOTAL)						
a) G.P. & Family Practitioner						
b) Internist						
c) Pediatrician						
d) Ob/Gyn						
e) Other Specialty						
2. Physician Extenders* (TOTAL)						
3. Nurses* (TOTAL)						
4. Other Direct Health Care Providers* (TOTAL)						
B. Dental (TOTAL)						
1. Dentist						
a. General Practitioner						
b. Specialist						
2. Dental Hygienist						
3. Other Dental						

*List by type of specialty
**Indicate number of people
***Column (c) includes both full and part-time staff. See Glossary for definition of FTE for both columns (c) and (e)

FREQUENCY: QUARTERLY

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[illegible]

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TABLE 10 – PERSONNEL SALARIES, BY COST CENTER, DURING QUARTER ENDING ____________

COST CENTER	TOTAL PERSONNEL SALARIES (a)	PHYSICIANS (b)	PHYSICIAN EXTENDERS (c)	NURSES (d)	DENTISTS (e)	OTHER DIRECT HEALTH CARE PROVIDERS (f)	OTHER DIRECT HEALTH CARE NON-PRO. (g)	SUPPORTING SERVICES [illegible] (h)	
TOTAL									
1. Direct Health Care *(TOTAL)*									
a. Medical									
b. Lab *(Medical)*									
c. X-Ray *(Medical)*									
d. Pharmacy									
e. Dental *(Includes Dental Lab & X-Ray)*									
f. Hospitalization									
2. Supporting Services *(TOTAL)*									
a. Social and Community Services									
b. Patient transportation									
3. General Services *(TOTAL)*									
a. Administrative									
b. Other General Services									

FREQUENCY: QUARTERLY

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TABLE 11 – DIRECT AND DISTRIBUTED COSTS BY COST CENTERS
DURING QUARTER ENDING ______________________

COST CENTERS	DIRECT COSTS					ALLOCATION OF ADMINISTRATIVE AND GENERAL SERVICES	TOTAL COSTS
	PERSONNEL COSTS						
	AMOUNT	% OF PERSONNEL COSTS**	CONSULTANT CONTRACTUAL SERVICES	OTHER COSTS	TOTAL (a, c & d)		
	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)	(f)	(g)
1. Direct Health Care *(SUB TOTAL)*							
a. Medical							
b. Laboratory *(Medical)*			*				
c. X-Ray *(Medical)*			*				
d. Pharmacy *(Medical)*			*				
e. Dental *(Includes Lab and X-Ray)*			*				
f. Hospitalization							
2. Supporting Services *(SUB TOTAL)*							
a. Social and Community Services							
b. Patient Transportation							
3. General Services *(SUB TOTAL)*							
a. Administrative							
b. General							
TOTAL							

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*[illegible] Lab, X-Ray, and Pharmacy [illegible]
**[illegible] for allocating general service cost
[illegible] Line 1 and 2, [illegible]
†PREPARED QUARTERLY

GLOSSARY FOR
MIGRANT HEALTH PROJECT REPORTING REQUIREMENTS

For National reporting purposes the terms "Migrant and family members" and "Seasonal Farmworkers and family members" are synonymous with the definitions for "Domestic Agricultural Migratory Worker" and "Seasonal Agricultural Worker" in 56.102(d) and (e), Rules and Regulations, Grants for Migrant Health Services.

(d) "Domestic Agricultural Migratory Worker" means an individual residing in a State whose principal occupation is in agriculture on a seasonal basis, who establishes for the purpose of such employment a temporary place of abode and who has been so employed within the last 24 months.

(e) "Seasonal Agricultural Worker" means an individual residing in a State whose principal occupation is in agriculture on a seasonal basis, who has been so employed within the last 24 months and who has not established a temporary place of abode.

Clinic: For purposes of this report the term clinic refers to the physical facility or center operated by the migrant health project where direct health care is provided.

Cost Centers: For purposes of this report project services are classified in three major areas. The three major areas are direct health care, supporting services, and general services. For additional explanation, see "Accounting and Cost Reporting System for Migrant Health Projects", Chapter IV, April, 1974.

(a) **Direct health care** are those costs incurred by the project in providing services which directly relate to the prevention, diagnosis, treatment, and rehabilitation of a patient's physical illness. This includes medical, lab, X-ray, pharmacy, dental, and hospitalization services.

(b) **Supporting services** are those costs incurred by the project in providing services which assist users in meeting health care needs but which are not direct health care.

1. Social and community services would include such activities as outreach, follow-up, counseling and assistance in a variety of health related problem areas.

2. Patient transportation includes only the transporting of patients to and from the medical services of the project.

(c) **General services** are those costs which relate to the administration and operation of the project and are supportive of project operations.

1. Administrative services include the management activities of the project director or coordinator, the accounting, bookkeeping, clerical, typing, personnel, record keeping and reporting activities of the project.

2. Other general services include but are not limited to the activities relating to operating the project such as rental of facilities, maintenance, equipment (not charged to direct health care or supporting services), housekeeping and overhead.

Encounter: An encounter is a face-to-face contact between a user and a health care provider resulting in a service to the patient. Each encounter involves a provider who must be acting independently. The number of encounters for any one user in any one day is the number of individual providers with whom the user has had face-to-face contact, including contacts resulting from provider referrals for consultation or other purposes.

a. To meet the encounter criterion, the provider must be acting on his own and not assisting another provider. For example, a nurse assisting a physician during a physical examination by taking a patient's history, or by drawing a blood sample, is not credited with a separate encounter. The nurse in this instance is simply participating in a physician encounter. An encounter does not encompass such services as a laboratory technician drawing blood or collecting urine specimens nor does it include an X-ray technician taking an X-ray film.

b. The encounter criterion is met when a patient comes in periodically for medication or physiological measurements on standing orders of the physician, and these are administered by a nurse, without the physician seeing the patient. In this case the nurse is the health care provider.

c. The encounter may be in the project or at any other location as part of the project's outreach or referral program.

d. Group sessions or community meetings, such as when a nurse speaks to a high school class on hygiene, are not to be included as encounters.

e. When a provider treats several members of a family in a single session, each member treated represents an encounter for that provider.

Expected payment source: This term refers to the first source that the project looks to for payment of services provided any patient. This payment does not have to represent the majority of the costs involved in the patient's service. For example, if Medicaid will only reimburse the project $7 for a service or a procedure that costs $25, Medicaid will still be considered the expected payment source.

Full fee patient: This term indicates that a patient will be billed and expected to pay for all of his project bills.

Full-time: This term refers to individuals who work a full complement of hours at the migrant health project each pay period. The number of hours required to be considered a full-time employee will be project specific since the project work-weeks will vary.

Full-Time Equivalent (FTE) – A statistical concept which expresses the time spent by part-time workers in terms of the number of full-time workers required to produce the same amount of work. The figure is calculated by dividing the sum of hours worked by part-time workers by 40 (hours) and expressing the results as a decimal fraction. For example, if 6 part-time workers work (combined) 133 hours, the 133 hours are divided by 40 and equals 3.3 – the number of full time workers required to do 133 hours of work. This term includes full-time workers who are part-time in patient care and part-time in another activity such as administration.

Medicaid – This is Title XIX of the Social Security Act Amendments of 1965. This is a Federal-State program under which the categorically and/or medically needy are assisted in paying their costs of health care. In California, this program is called "MediCal".

Medicare – This is Title XVIII of the Social Security Act, a medical insurance plan covering payments for health services for persons aged 65 and over. Medicare, Part A, covers hospital and related costs; Medicare, Part B, covers physician and other services.

Non-Staff – Any person working part-time for the project from whose pay the project does not withhold FICA taxes (i.e., fee for service, session/clinic or contractual services).

No Collection (Project pays costs) – This term indicates those individuals who have no payment source and whose income level is such that all their costs at the project are supported by migrant project funds.

Other direct health care non-providers – This term refers to personnel in Occupational fields requiring formal training; this includes all persons involved in direct health care by providing supporting assistance to physicians and dentists, and all professional and formally trained technical personnel, such as pharmacists, laboratory technicians, X-ray technicians; and clinic aids. Personnel in this category cannot be credited with encounters.

Other direct health care providers -- This category includes individuals who are professionally trained providers and who can deliver services independent of a physician, such as optometrists, physical and occupational therapists, professional social workers, podiatrists, audiologists and psychologists. In general, these providers exercise a body of knowledge and technique in patient care which is not subject to complete technical review and critique by another class of providers.

Partial fee patient – This term indicates that the patient does not have third party coverage and pays some portion of his bill for project services but not all. The amount is usually determined by using a sliding scale system in which the proportion paid is determined by income level and family size according to individual project policy. The project pays the difference between actual costs and the patient's portion.

Part-time – This term refers to individuals who work less than a full complement of hours at the migrant health project each pay period. The number of hours required to be considered a part-time employee will be project specific since the project work-weeks will vary.

Physician extender: This term refers to an individual who is a professionally trained provider and who delivers services apart from a physician, but who refers serious diagnostic problems and serious treatment activities to a physician. Physician extenders have special training and may be licensed, and include such personnel as nurse clinicians, nurse practitioners, nurse midwives, medex, and physician assistants.

Provider: This term refers to the individual who is responsible for giving health care services during an encounter. These individuals consist of physicians, dentists, or other health care personnel who have primary responsibility for assessing the condition of the patient and exercising independent judgment as to the care of the patient. The provider credited with an encounter in which two or more providers are present and participate is the one who is in charge of the encounter.

Provider Type: For purposes of reporting encounters providers are grouped into two major categories: medical and dental. The following are examples of the type of providers to be included under the two major categories.

A. **Medical**
   1. **Physicians (MD or DO)**
      - General Practitioner
      - Family Practitioner
      - Internist
      - Allergist
      - Dermatologist
      - Ob-Gynecologist
      - Ophthalmologist
      - Orthopedist
      - Otolaryngologist
      - Pediatrician
      - Psychiatrist
      - Radiologist
      - Surgeon
      - Urologist

2. **Physician extenders**
    - Medex
    - Physician assistants
    - Physician associates
    - Nurse clinicians
    - Nurse midwife
    - Nurse practitioner
    - Pediatric nurse practitioner
3. **Nurses**
    - Public Health nurse
    - Registered nurse
    - Licensed practical nurse
    - Licensed vocational nurse
4. **Other direct health care**
    - Audiologist
    - *Family health worker (include family health coordinator and community health worker)
    - *Nutritionist
    - Occupational therapist
    - Optometrist
    - Physical therapist
    - Podiatrist
    - Psychologist
    - *Social worker
    - Speech therapist

B. Dental
1. Dentist
    - General Practitioner
    - Oral Surgeon
    - Orthodontist
    - Periodontist
2. Dental Hygienist

* When providing direct health care rather than supporting services

Salaried Staff: Any person working full or part-time for the project from whose salary FICA taxes are withheld by the project. These include staff working at the clinic, at non-project facilities, or as part of the outreach program

Staff

Any person working full or part-time for the project on a basis other than contractual (see non-staff). This includes persons working in staff capacities for the project who are not paid from project specific federal funds (i.e.: NHSC doctors, state employees).

Session/Clinic: This term refers to a non-staff provider who performs services on a regularly scheduled basis for the project and is compensated by the project at a given rate for a specified block of time. Usually the session would be conducted in project facilities. However, sessions conducted in a private physician's office or in other non-center facilities are included and should be footnoted accordingly.

Users: This term refers to the group of people who have received services from the migrant health project at least once during a specific reporting period.

NAACP, WESTERN REGION, et al.,

vs.

PETER J. BRENNAN

RECEIVED SEP 15 1975 Attachment to GAL 1518

UNITED STATES DISTRICT COURT
FOR THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA

FILED
AUG 13 1974
JAMES F. DAVEY, Clerk

NAACP, WESTERN REGION, et al., Plaintiffs,	)	
v.	)	Civil Action No. 2010-72
PETER J. BRENNAN, Secretary of Labor, United States Department of Labor, et al., Defendants.	)	

ORDER

Plaintiffs and Defendants having stipulated and agreed to the entry of the following Order in addition to, and in implementation of, this Court's Declaratory Judgment and Injunction Order of May 31, 1973;

It is, this 11th day of July, 1974, hereby ordered, adjudged and decreed as follows:

I. Provision of Service to Migrant and Seasonal Farmworkers

A. Defendants shall take all necessary and appropriate action -- including the conditioning of federal funding of state Employment Service ("ES") programs upon the inclusion of adequate standards and provisions in those programs and the administration of the programs in accordance therewith -- to ensure the delivery of all Department of Labor ("DOL") manpower services, benefits, and protections, including the full range of counseling, testing, training and job referral services authorized by law and required by DOL regulations ("Manpower Services") to migrant and seasonal farmworkers on a non-discriminatory basis. Accordingly, Defendants shall require each state and local ES office providing Manpower Services to:

1. Provide migrant and seasonal farmworkers the full range of Manpower Services under terms and conditions qualitatively equivalent and quantitatively proportionate to those provided non-farmworkers.

2. Extend coverage of local Job Bank order information to rural areas and provide migrant and seasonal farmworkers with assistance to enable them to utilize such information on a non-discriminatory basis.

3. Take uniform, complete applications for each migrant and seasonal job applicant utilizing ES offices, including a meaningful history of the prior employment, training and educational background of the applicant and a statement of his desired training and/or employment, and utilize such applications in providing applicants with, and referring them to, available jobs and training opportunities directed to up-grading job

capabilities; provided an applicant may sign a written waiver on the application form after the ES official has explained the benefits attendant upon taking such applications.

4. Ensure that all crew leaders, employers and their agents utilizing day-haul locations operating under ES supervision or employing workers referred by ES comply with federal and state laws with respect to vehicle registration, wage, hours and working conditions, and where feasible and whenever requested take complete job applications for migrant and seasonal farmworkers utilizing such day-haul services.

5. Refer every violation of state or federal law of which it has knowledge to appropriate state or federal enforcement officials, including officials or other agencies of DOL and of federal agencies and departments other than DOL, and utilize to the maximum possible extent the full resources of the DOL monitor/advocate system in expediting such referrals.

6. Continue to develop affirmative action programs for the staffing of ES offices and to develop available ES staff in a manner facilitating the delivery of ES services tailored to the special needs of migrant and seasonal farmworkers, including: (1) the positioning of bilingual staff in offices serving a significant number of Spanish-speaking applicants; and (2) the hiring of staff members from the migrant and seasonal farmworker community and/or members of community-based migrant programs.

B. Defendants shall require each state agency to employ an adequate number of staff who shall be assigned to ES offices which serve a significant number of migrant and seasonal farmworkers and who shall (a) contact migrant and seasonal farmworkers in areas of service of local ES offices to ascertain employment problems and to counsel on the availability and use of Manpower Services; (b) make available and distribute to migrant and seasonal farmworkers concise written information in Spanish and English explaining the range of Manpower Services available and the rights of workers under federal statutes and regulations; (c) make necessary referrals to ES offices; and (d) assist in filing and processing complaints.

C. Defendants shall conduct a feasibility review of ES experience with respect to the provision of Annual Worker Plans. The results of this review will determine whether an experimental project for the further development of such plans is advisable.

D. Defendants shall review all interstate job orders prior to approval for transmission and shall require all state and federal offices processing such interstate job orders to comply with the following requirements:

1. All job orders reviewed as described above must at a minimum include:

a. Language on the face of each job order that clearly indicates that the order constitutes a firm offer on the part of the employer placing the order.

b. No reference, expressed or implied, to worker preference with respect to race, national origin, sex, age or any other criteria the use of which is proscribed by Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964.

c. A statement fully disclosing each material term and condition of employment offered including the area of employment, the crop, the nature of the work, the period and hours of employment, the anticipated starting date of employment and the number of days or weeks thereafter for which work is available, the wage rate expressed in hourly wage rate equivalents, any deductions to be taken from wages and non-monetary benefits, if any, to be provided. Each order shall contain information sufficient on its face to establish compliance with applicable state and federal minimum wage, child labor, social security, health and safety, and farm labor contractor registration laws.

d. For purposes of this subparagraph the starting date of employment and the number of days or weeks thereafter for which work is guaranteed, if any. For each guaranteed week of work, the job order must state the exclusive manner by which the guarantee is abated if the offered employment becomes unavailable due to unforeseeable weather conditions or other acts of God.

e. A statement with respect to bonus or work incentive payments or reimbursement for transportation and other expenses which will be paid by the employer in addition to the basic wage rate, including the time period within which such payments will be made; provided that no such payments and reimbursements shall be contingent upon the employee continuing employment beyond the period of employment specified in the job order or in the case of any employee with children of school age beyond the beginning of the school year.

f. An employer's signed verification acknowledged before a duly authorized ES official that all information appearing on the job order has been examined and is an accurate and substantiated offer of employment based upon crop acreage, yield, harvest date, normal weather conditions, plan conditions, past employment patterns, and other relevant factors.

2. State and federal offices shall:

a. Conduct documented random field checks consistent with legal authority, to determine whether wages, hours and working and housing conditions are as specified in job orders and that actual conditions and terms of employment do not violate state and federal law;

b. Communicate promptly to supply states or regions any unusual or unanticipated weather or other conditions or events which might affect the employment of workers employed through the use of interstate clearance orders.

c. Make available to each migrant and seasonal farmworker upon request a copy of the job order which the worker is filling with a full explanation of its terms and conditions.

E. Defendants shall require each state ES agency to review and process all intrastate job orders in accordance with the procedures and requirements set forth in Section I-D of this Order.

II. Information System

A. Defendants shall modify and refine existing data-gathering systems complying to EEOC standards, including subcategorization accurately reflecting staffing patterns, type and quantity of services delivered, so that such systems will yield information for each State:

1. With respect to migrants (and as compared to nonmigrants) as follows:

a. The number registering for service;
b. The number referred to jobs;
c. The number placed in jobs;
d. The number enrolled in training;
e. The number receiving counseling;

f. The number receiving job development;

g. The number receiving testing;

h. The number referred to supportive services;

i. The number registered for service who receive none of the services specified in sub-paragraphs (b) through (h);

j. The number of placements according to wage rate;

k. The number of placements according to duration;

l. The number placed according to broad occupational categories as identified through the ESARS special sample;

m. Sub-categorization of above on the basis of sex, Spanish surname, and American Indian as identified through the ESARS special sample;

2. .With respect to seasonal farmworkers, data on the number of such workers placed in seasonal agricultural jobs and the number of such placements shall be available with respect to fiscal year 1975 and thereafter. Data as specified in Paragraph A of this Section shall be available with respect to such workers in fiscal year 1976 and thereafter.

B. Upon the request of plaintiffs' counsel, defendants shall make available the statistical information for specified local offices with respect to the information categories specified in Paragraph A of this Section.

C. All such information, and statistical reports derived from such information, prepared by state and local ES offices or by DOL shall be made readily available for inspection and review by Plaintiffs and by representatives of all bona fide migrant and legal services organizations.

III. Monitoring

Within 60 days of the date of this Order, Defendants shall implement a federal/state monitoring system which shall review the provision of Manpower Services, benefits and protections to migrant and seasonal farmworkers, the functioning of state complaint systems and the compliance of state ES offices with all applicable laws, regulations and directives. This monitoring system shall include the following features:

A. Designation for each state of an official responsible for monitoring compliance in such state on a continuing basis.

B. On-site reviews on a regular basis by Regional DOL offices, at least 25% of which shall be reviews of those ES offices which provide Manpower Services primarily to rural residents and migrant and seasonal farmworkers.

C. Annual on-site reviews of a sampling of ES offices which provide Manpower Services primarily to rural residents and migrant and seasonal farmworkers, by federal staff following procedures and reporting practices similar to those described in the Equal Employment Opportunity Manual and utilized by the Investigation and Compliance Staff in the 1972 Special Review Staff Report. The Investigation and Compliance Staff shall have joint responsibility for the first annual on-site review pursuant to this Paragraph and, if the Special Review Committee so recommends, for the second annual on-site review.

D. Plaintiffs and all bona fide migrant and legal services organizations shall be permitted to inspect and review all monitoring reports regularly filed with the DOL by state officials pursuant to paragraph A or prepared by the DOL pursuant to paragraphs B and C of this Section.

IV. Complaint Resolution

Within 60 days of the date of this Order Defendants shall implement and publicize a federally-supervised complaint resolution system, and shall require state compliance and coordination with such system, which shall include the following features:

A. Each state and local ES office shall provide migrant and seasonal farmworkers in its service area full information in a language understandable to them on the availability and operation of the complaint mechanism, and shall:

(1) Receive complaint information, record necessary data and keep records of all complaints filed and action taken thereon, and file with the Regional DOL office by state a quarterly report of all complaint intake and referral information by local office and a record of action taken to resolve each complaint, attaching copies of all unresolved complaints;

(2) Whenever possible resolve each complaint within five (5) working days from the time the complaint is filed by taking all appropriate action, including without limitation providing requested Manpower Services, referring the complainant to

equivalent alternative employment, and making appropriate law enforcement referrals such as a referral to a wage-hour compliance officer for the purpose of obtaining back-pay or wages due;

(3) Follow up each unresolved complaint. If a complaint has not been resolved or enforcement action has not been initiated within twenty (20) working days, the local office shall report the status of the complaint to the state monitor/advocate and shall provide the complainant with a letter, a copy of which shall be sent to the DOL Regional office, explaining the reasons for its failure to resolve the complaint and advising the complainant that his complaint has been referred to the Regional DOL office and the monitor/advocate for appropriate action.

B. All unresolved complaints referred to the Regional DOL office shall be reviewed by the federal monitor/advocate designee who shall:

(1) Whenever possible resolve the complaint by appropriate action, including referral to the appropriate federal enforcement agency for the initiation of action against state offices operating unlawfully or against employers, crewleaders or others violating federal law; or

(c) Provide the complainant with a letter explaining the reasons for its failure to resolve the complaint to the satisfaction of the complainant.

C. Defendants shall coordinate the federal/state complaint and monitoring systems with national DOL monitoring and data-gathering systems and with DOL review of State self-appraisal reports to ensure that information concerning the frequency of complaints, adequacy of service and the failure of the states to resolve meritorious complaints in a manner satisfactory to the complainant results in necessary enforcement actions and/or decertification proceedings against states as provided in Section V of this Order.

V. Assurance of State Compliance with Federal Law

Defendants shall take all necessary action to achieve and maintain continuing compliance of all state offices with the requirements of law and to enforce fully the rights of migrant and seasonal farmworkers. Whenever Defendants determine, on the basis of (a) information submitted to Defendants by a state or gathered by Defendants through their own information-gathering system, (b) Defendants' review of complaints filed, or (c) the monitoring of state compliance pursuant to Section III of this Order, that any state may not be in compliance with the provisions of its approved plan of service in any significant respect or with Departmental regulations and directives, Defendants shall promptly investigate the matter. If Defendants determine after investigation that such state is in fact in noncompliance, Defendants shall specify to the state the action deemed necessary to correct such noncompliance, and shall provide a period not to exceed 30 days for the state to achieve compliance. If, at the conclusion of such period, the state's noncompliance has not been corrected, Defendants shall promptly initiate decertification proceedings under the Wagner-Peyser Act. In appropriate cases, where noncompliance is deemed not so substantial as to require decertification proceedings, Defendants may impose other fiscal restraints, such as short-term funding of the ES agency involved, or transfer federal personnel, pursuant to the provisions of the Intergovernmental Personnel Act (P. L. 91-648, January 5, 1971, 84 Stat. 1909), to assist such ES agency in achieving full compliance with the law, or other appropriate action, provided that unless such actions achieve substantial compliance with the requirements of law within sixty (60) days, Defendants shall promptly initiate decertification proceedings under the Wagner-Peyser Act.

VI. Special Review Committee

Within 60 days of the date of this Order Defendants shall establish, at the direction of the Under Secretary, a Special Review Committee which shall be charged with reviewing compliance by Defendants with the terms of the Court's Order, and shall have the following features and functions:

A. The Committee shall be composed of (a) three (3) voting representatives of migrant and seasonal farmworkers groups to be selected by Plaintiffs; (b) three (3) voting representatives selected by Defendants, one of whom shall be from the Office of the Secretary or the Under Secretary; (c) a seventh voting member chosen by the foregoing six representatives, who shall serve as Chairperson of the Committee.

B. The Committee shall meet at least once quarterly for a period of two years from the date of its establishment.

C. The Committee shall have responsibility for reviewing Defendants' implementation of and compliance with the Court's Orders, and shall file with the Court a semi-annual report on Defendants' compliance with this Order. Any voting representative of the Committee may express separate views in a supplemental minority submission accompanying any such report provided, however, that the Secretary may also submit separate views to the Court. The Committee may also make interim recommendations to DOL for changes or improvements in the delivery of Manpower Services to migrant and seasonal farmworkers.

D. With the exception of disclosure pursuant to paragraph C of this Section VI, during the review period the Committee members, the parties to the action, their officers, agents, servants, employees and attorneys and those persons in active concert or participation with them who receive actual notice of judgment shall not make disclosure of any information developed for any report or recommendation and not otherwise publicly disclosable.

E. Defendants shall cooperate fully with the Committee and make all DOL information and documents relating to the provision of Manpower Services to migrant and seasonal farmworkers available to the Committee. Defendants shall make available to the Committee appropriate facilities, support services, and staff support as is reasonably necessary to adequately carry out the Committee's functions. Upon request of any three members of the Committee, Defendants shall make available appropriate officials or employees of DOL and its agencies who shall consult with the Committee or a member thereof and report on actions taken to comply with the Court's Orders.

F. Members of the Committee who are not employees of the Federal Government shall be paid compensation at a rate of up to the per diem equivalent of the rate for GS-18 when engaged in the work of the Committee, excluding travel time, and shall be allowed travel expenses and per diem in lieu of subsistence as authorized by law (5 U.S.C. 5703) for persons in the Government service employed intermittently and receiving compensation on a per diem, when actually employed, basis, as determined by the Chairperson.

VII. Miscellaneous

A. Within 60 days of the date of this Order, Defendants shall file with the Court a report describing the steps they have taken to comply with this Order, including a description of the monitoring system established pursuant to Section II of this Order and the complaint resolution system established pursuant to Section IV of this Order.

B. Defendants shall transmit copies of this Order to each DOL regional office and to each state and local ES office.

C. The Court shall retain jurisdiction over this case pending further Order of the Court, provided, however, that any issues or disputes between the parties relating to matters addressed by this judgment shall first be presented to designated counsel for the parties; thereafter counsel for the party claiming that the Order has been violated may report to the Court any matters remaining unresolved after 30 days.

D. Nothing in this Order shall affect in any way the continued application or validity of departmental regulations and policies that are consistent with the terms of this Order. Nor shall anything in this Order preclude the adoption of new regulations and policies, or changes in regulations and policies, consistent with the terms of this Order.

Dated this 9th day of August, 1974.

Charles R. Richey
CHARLES R. RICHEY
UNITED STATES DISTRICT JUDGE

GPO 882-017